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THE BUDGET.

MR. GLADSTONE'S speech, on Thursday night, consisted, according to old custom, of two distinct parts,—one dealing solely with the balance-sheet of the past year, and the other with that of the coming one. Having, in the first part of his speech, compared his previous estimates with the actual facts as disclosed by the returns of the revenue and expenditure, and congratulated himself on his success, or accounted for his failure, he proceeded, in the second part, to give a new series of estimates, with whatever additional light may have been gained from the experience of another year. The relative importance of these two essential parts of every financial statement varies very much from year to year. Ordinarily, the public are chiefly concerned to know if the Chancellor of the Exchequer has a surplus and how he proposes to deal with it; but, in years like the present and the last, which follow extensive financial changes, the chief interest is concentrated upon the retrospective part of his statement. We look to this part of the Budget speech to find the result of such changes, not merely as a matter of scientific interest, but as a guide to future financial changes. The real interest of financial science depends on keeping up the chain of connection from year to year, and regarding every financial change as a scientific experiment, the results of which will be gradually developed in succeeding years. Each of the divisions of Mr. Gladstone's speech will be adverted to in order.

In the first place, it must not be forgotten that in the present financial statement we are to look for the results not merely of the budget of last year, but also of that of 1860. The effects of the latter are not yet fully shown; and the French treaty and the other financial measures of 1860 must be regarded as still under trial. We do not mean to imply that there exists any doubt as to the success of Mr. Gladstone's policy in that year, but merely that full time has not yet been allowed for its full development. There never was any reasonable doubt as to its ultimate success. Every one who had faith in financial science and in the uniform experience of the previous eighteen years was confident on that point. But for those who continue to doubt, there is now proof which they can both see and handle. The sweeping changes of 1860 were made for the purpose of relieving trade, and with the avowed expectation that the increasing consumption of those articles on which the duty remained, and the general prosperity consequent on the removal of restraints from trade, would, in a few years, make up to the exchequer for the temporary loss it sustained. The question now is, how far these expectations have been realized—to what extent these measures have affected trade, and how far the revenue has shown a power of recovering itself? The last two years have been singularly unfortunate for giving these measures a fair trial; and yet notwithstanding the bad harvest in 1860, the loss of the American market and the disturbance of the cotton trade in 1861, the results of these years afford matter for great congratulation, and signally establish the correctness of Mr. Gladstone's policy. In the year 1860, the French treaty had not come into full operation; but even with that disadvantage, Mr. Gladstone was able to show, by a comparison of the articles on which the duty was not touched with those on which it was reduced or abolished, that the export trade of this country received an addition consequent on his measures of nearly £9,000,000. During the last year we have had the full benefit of the treaty, and

its result is too striking to escape the notice of even the most careless observer. The exports to France from this country during six months of 1859–60, before the treaty came into operation, were only £4,572,000, while in the same period of 1861–2 they amounted to £10,312,000, thus more than half filling up the gap which the loss of the American market has made in our export trade, and giving rise, as Mr. Gladstone observed, to the confident hope that "the commerce between these two great countries is at last about to approach a scale something like what nature intended it to be." The elastic force of the revenue presents still stronger cause for congratulation. Of the large sums taken from the customs in 1860 by the French Treaty and other measures, part was recovered in the following year, though, owing chiefly to the bad harvest, not to the extent that had been estimated. But in the present year, the recovery has far exceeded expectation, as appears from the following figures. Comparing the revenue of the year just ended with that of the preceding one, we find that sources of income have been taken away amounting in the whole to £2,637,000. This is due to three items: the loss of a penny of the income-tax for three quarters of a year, the loss of the paper duty for half a year, and the loss of a temporary source of income which had accrued to the previous year by shortening the time of the malt credits, but which of course could not be had a second time. If, then, the beneficial effects of the measures of 1860 had been exhausted, and the revenue had shown no power of recovering from the remissions of that and the following year, the revenue of 1861–2 would have shown a diminution, as compared with that of the preceding one, to the extent of £2,637,000. In fact, the diminution was only £809,000. The improvement, therefore, which the remaining branches of the revenue have made in this single year, is the difference of these sums, amounting to no less than £1,828,000. This appears to us the most satisfactory statement in Mr. Gladstone's speech. And it is the more remarkable, when we consider that the improvement took place in a year in which we lost more than half of our trade with America, and in which there occurred to the most important branch of manufacture in this country the severest crisis it has ever experienced. In stating these facts, it should not be forgotten that they are due mainly to that policy of the commercial treaty with France which was consummated by Mr. Gladstone, with the assistance of Mr. Cobden, in 1860.

Mr. Gladstone commenced the second part of his speech with the announcement that the surplus which he expected for the coming year was only £150,000. The estimated revenue and expenditure both exceed £70,000,000; and their respective amounts lie so close together that it requires a second glance to tell which is the greater. In dealing with such large sums, so small a matter as £150,000 can hardly be regarded as a surplus at all; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer was justified in observing that the prominent feature of his statement was the announcement of an intention to commence the year without a real surplus of revenue over expenditure. He hopes, perhaps, to avoid criticism by making the confession; but the Budget will, no doubt, be open to attack on this point. It has lately been argued by a contemporary that a larger surplus ought now to be provided than was deemed sufficient when our expenditure was at a lower level, inasmuch as the higher the expenditure, the greater are the contingencies against which the Government ought to be prepared; and there seems to be good reason in the



argument. There is, however, much force in the justification which Mr. Gladstone puts forward for the course which he proposes to adopt. He compares the present time with a year of war, in which it is idle to provide a surplus, since all calculation may be thrown out by events which it is impossible to foresee. We are now in the midst of a cotton crisis, which may happily soon come to an end, or possibly be protracted and very much increase in severity. In the former case, the increase of prosperity will react on the revenue and give us a real surplus, while in the latter, any reasonable surplus which the House would provide would be insufficient to meet the crisis, and ulterior measures would still be necessary. Why, then, should we impose taxes at present which may never be required, instead of waiting, as in time of war, till events shall show what provision is really necessary? If a finance minister is ever justified in leaving himself without a surplus, Mr. Gladstone has found some forcible reasons for it on the present occasion.

But the smallness of the expected surplus has not prevented numerous applications for its disposal. Even Mr. Gladstone's destitution has not, as he supposed, protected him from a crowd of plunderers. The distillers want a reduction of duty, the persons connected with the sugar trade want not a reduction but an alteration, the maltsters want their credits prolonged, the wine-merchants want an alteration in the alcoholic test, and the hop-growers, though not coming prominently forward, were waiting in ambush ready to spring on the Chancellor of the Exchequer if he did not abolish the duty on hops. Of these five important claims, Mr. Gladstone rejected, as we think on satisfactory grounds, the first three, and listened to the two others. The case of the distillers was easily disposed of. The quantity of spirits on which duty is paid has considerably diminished since the last increase of duty. Is this due to a decrease in consumption or an increase in illicit distillation? The distillers say the latter, and that people drink as much spirits as before; but they give no proof of their assertion; indeed, they seem to think it requires none. Mr. Gladstone says the former, and states some facts of more or less weight to justify his conclusion. He considers a decreased consumption with an increase of the proceeds of the tax not a thing to be regretted; and in the meantime, till satisfactory evidence can be given of the alleged extent of illicit distillation, he declines to make any change. The sugar duties were still more easily disposed of. A great variety of interests are connected with that trade, some of which ask for the change, while others oppose it. The application was made only a week or two before the Budget, and it is not, therefore, a case for immediate action, though it may be for inquiry. The malt credits were shortened only a year ago, and no reasons have since occurred which seem to justify so retrograde a step. Mr. Gladstone has met the complaints of the wine-growers by reducing the four rates of wine duty from four to two. The line is drawn at 26 degrees of alcoholic strength. All wines below that will be admitted at 1s. a gallon, and all above at 2s. 6d. This will save, in most cases, the application of the alcoholic test, as strong wines will in general be offered at the highest duty. It is to be observed that some alcoholic test is absolutely necessary for the preservation of the large amount obtained from the spirit duty, as otherwise spirits might be largely introduced at a low rate of duty. The change, it is said, is acceptable to the persons engaged in the wine trade, and will be also beneficial to the public. Mr. Gladstone's proposal as to the hop duties appears to us an exceedingly just mode of dealing with that question. We had occasion to show, not long since, that the brewers would be the persons who would ultimately be benefited by the repeal of the duty. They will gain by the reduction in the price of hops, and this gain, which will be about 3d. in respect of the quantity of hops required for a barrel of beer, will be added to the sum now payable for the licences. The burthen of brewers' licences has hitherto fallen very unequally on small and large brewers, but in future, as the amount will depend on the quantity brewed, it will be more fairly adjusted. The hop-growers are now expressing their gratitude, and look for nothing in future but smiling peace over the hop-gardens of Kent and Sussex. It would be easy to show that their hopes are delusive, but we will not at present disturb their felicity.

KENNEDY v. SWINFEN.

WE are not at all disposed to assent to the sneers which some writers think fit to vent against what is called the pedantic etiquette of the legal profession. Rules always seem absurd to those who neither understand the principles out of which they arise, nor have been at the pains to acquire the experience which has suggested their adoption. When an unprofessional person goes for the first time into a court of justice, he is very much puzzled to understand why one question may be asked and another is objected to. He thinks the exclusion a particular injury, unintelligible and irrational, and is disposed to presume the law of evidence to be a confused medley of arbitrary and senseless rules. Yet, after all, this system has been elaborated by a long course of experience, and has been adopted as that

which is found in practice best to conduce to the conduct of business and the eliciting of truth. This is true of all arts and all trades. The unprofessional man may mock at maxims he does not understand, but those who are at the pains to consider them, will find there are very sufficient reasons for regulations which those concerned in the transaction of the business have universally agreed to follow. Nothing may seem more remote than the connection between the goose-step and the result of the battle of Waterloo. Nevertheless it is quite certain, that if the English drill-sergeant had been less strict, the British formation would have been less precise, and the British square would have been less solid under fire. It is very easy to raise a laugh at the expense of a particular class, especially if that class is thought quite capable of taking care of itself. But the maxim, *cuiuslibet credendum est in arte sua*, is not less true of the bar than of any other craft.

If anything were wanting to re-enforce the propriety and necessity of observing professional etiquette, after the recent exposure in the cases of Messrs. Edwin James and Digby Seymour, it would be found superabundantly exemplified in the scandalous cause just tried on the Midland Circuit. Mr. Charles Rann Kennedy has contributed a third to this too celebrated duett, without the excuses which his fellow-triumvirs might plead in mitigation. Mr. Kennedy was by birth a gentleman, and by education a scholar. But he has shown himself alike destitute of the delicacy which might be looked for in the one character, and the refinement which ought to be the consequence of the other. With him the learning of "ingenious arts" has neither purified his morals nor mitigated his ferocity. It is worthy of remark that all these barristers, whose misdoings have at last become the subject of public scandal, commenced their career by a defection from the settled rules of professional etiquette. Mr. Edwin James's disregard of the code of professional honour is sufficiently notorious. Mr. Digby Seymour's undertaking to work out a private debt by discounting his fees has brought down on him the tardy censure of his Bench. Mr. Kennedy appears also to be one of those bold and generous spirits who refuse to be trammelled by the narrow-minded code of conventional morality. These men are the Jacobins of the advocates' "new morality," such as it is pictured in the famous lines of Canning. They have souls above human laws, and a conduct far below average decency. In the name of liberty and genius they permit themselves a behaviour to which ordinary mediocrity dares not aspire. Mr. Kennedy, though following the Midland Circuit, did not strictly belong to it. He had a business in some of the large towns of the district, according to his own description, "not of a high class." Any one acquainted with the legal profession will understand at once the sort of practitioner thus defined by himself. He is like one of the ambiguous sort of gentlemen who at the race-course are known as out-siders, and who frequent the outskirts of the ring. They are the shy customers of the profession. Just observe what an unscrupulous defiance of the rules by which a long experience has taught barristers to hedge in a profession which offers so many temptations, has enabled, and even perhaps seduced this man to accomplish. Here is a man who is, by his own account, hanging on the outskirts of a profession to whose discipline he does not choose to conform. He scents out a conspicuous cause, and he seeks an opportunity, by methods which professional etiquette absolutely prohibits, to foist himself into a case in which he is not interested, but from which he hopes to acquire notoriety. He thinks fit to send to a middle-aged lady, who has placed herself in the hands of counsel of the highest eminence and the most unquestioned integrity, an envelope with the significant word "pause" enclosed. He succeeds in engaging the confidence of the lady, who appears, by the whole course of the transaction, to be a female of impressionable temperament. Having got her into his clutches, he proceeds to play through her a desperate and gambling game. If the game had gone against them, she would have lost the safe competence which her proper legal advisers had secured to her,—his loss, as far as we can see, would have been nothing. If he gained, his design was to sweep off, if not the lady herself, at least that which had secured his attention to her and to her cause. We are not to judge of the propriety of the course he adopted by the accidental result. As it happened, he succeeded in upsetting the compromise and winning the cause on the new trial. But the chances were thousands to one against such a result, and the recklessness of the attempt is not the less to be considered because it happened to turn out luckily, any more than the gambler who risks his own and his friend's fortunes at the hazard-table is to be applauded because he wins the main. But let us pursue the course of the affair. By the wholesome rules of the profession, all relations between the client and the advocate should have been conducted through the instrumentality of the attorney. If the honourable practice of the law had been observed, there could have been no room for equivocal relations between the parties, either on pecuniary or even on more delicate topics. Mr. Kennedy would have had his fee marked on his brief; he would have done his best for his client, both for his own sake and for hers, and he would have had neither the temptation nor the opportunity to embark either in love-letters, sonnets, or reversions. But this does

not suit a gentleman and a scholar who does "not exactly" belong to the Midland or any other circuit, and who has a practice of "not a very high character" in a provincial town. He insists on having exclusive charge of the cause—and it seems, not only the cause, but the person and the fortunes of his client. The attorney is to be a completely subordinate personage in the affair, who acts under the instruction of the counsel, reversing the ordinary course of affairs. The high-minded Mr. Kennedy has a soul above fees; but with that mixture of meanness and cunning which characterizes the whole transaction, he gets the attorney to "mark the fees," in case they should get them out of the adversary—a Dodson and Fogg touch, perfectly worthy of the context of the affair. No one knows better than Mr. Kennedy that the best road to notoriety is to fall foul of some big man. Nothing can be more amusing than the cool and cynical way in which this provincial "toutier" describes how he invested in bullying Lord Chelmsford. He gave up a practice of £900 a year in the "Insolvent Courts," and took chambers in the Temple (at the loss of £40 on a piano), speculating on the fame which he would get out of worrying a Lord Chancellor, who, he now fully admits, had acted in the most straightforward and proper manner. This speculation did not turn out quite as profitable as he expected. Though he won his cause, he disgusted mankind; and having failed to open the world's oyster with his sharp and two-edged tongue, he found it necessary to betake himself to the more profitable occupation of sucking his client. By that combination of occupations which he seems to patronise, Mr. Kennedy thought fit to add the character of lover to those of attorney and counsel, which he had already assumed. Whether his success in the former capacity was equal to that which he achieved in the latter, does not appear quite clear, though he certainly complains of want of remuneration only in his legal pursuits. Indeed, he takes very good care to give the world to understand that his amatory devotion was amply rewarded. A more revolting spectacle of cunning cupidity and meanness we never remember to have seen exposed by the leading actor in the affair. He makes love to a vain, weak, half-educated woman till he has flattered her vanity sufficiently to place her fortune, and perhaps her person, within his grasp. First, she offers him the reversion of all her estates by will, but this will not do for the practitioner in the Insolvent Courts. He knows well enough that estates may be dissipated, and that wills may be revoked. He must have a deed, and he carries off the client to a bench in the Zoological Gardens much as a spider retires with a great blue-bottle he is about to disembowel. He partly wheedles, partly bullies her into assent, and then with a craft, perhaps, more revolting than any other part of the transaction, attempts to secure the ill-gotten gain by introducing some legacies to her relations which he thinks, by giving a colour to the transaction, may secure his own plunder. Armed with this assent, he himself prepares the deed in his own favour, and carries it to Mr. Collis, the lady's attorney. The flagrant indecency of such a transaction strikes Mr. Collis, and he insists on seeing his client herself—a step the propriety of which never seems to have occurred to Mr. Kennedy. It is true Mrs. Swinfen, coerced partly by the blandishments, partly by the menaces, of her joint law attorney and counsel, signs and seals; but the screw had been put on rather too tight, and the lady begins to be rather sick of her rapacious admirer. Mr. Kennedy says that certain symptoms of levity in the lady had led him to press for the deed. He got the deed, but, alas! the levity continued, and within a short space of time the amorous practitioner found himself left in the lurch for a more common-place admirer. The lady, in her changed situation, began to view with other eyes the conduct of the hero of the compromise, and to repent alike of her words and her deeds. Mr. Kennedy, if we may be permitted to pun, felt himself "done Brown," and he characteristically prepared for revenge. The pamphleteer, who had exhausted the arts of vituperation with which his scholarship supplied him on Lord Chelmsford, now poured forth his vials on that "Patience" whom, in many a sonnet, he had deified as a second Mrs. Brownrigg, the victim of her country's laws. He seems, however, to have discovered the mistake of so unproductive a vengeance, and brought an action for £20,000, founded on the promises he had extorted in the intervals of love and law. The rest is known to the world. Mr. Kennedy has shown that a man who is his own lawyer may prove himself to have something more than a fool for his client. We trust, for the honour, not of the English law only, but of human nature, that it may be long before such a scene may be repeated as that which closed the late Warwick Assize. We do not mean to say that any rules of professional etiquette could have inspired such a nature as that of Mr. Kennedy with a respect for the principles of rectitude, probity, and honour. But, at least, if the regulations which decency has dictated and experience affirmed were enforced with a little more rigour and courage, Mr. Kennedy could never have succeeded in placing himself in a position where his own bad passions prompted him to avail himself of the weakness of a foolish and defenceless woman in order to gratify his vanity and satisfy his cupidity. Mr. Kennedy's case, if it proves anything, proves this to

demonstration, that the laws of professional honour are not less essential to the protection of the interests of society, than to the preservation of the integrity of the bar.

IRON SHIPS.

THE battle between the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor* suggests, at first sight, the conclusion that if two iron ships meet, they may pound each other till they have spent all their ammunition without producing any particular result. If this should be the case, the power of defence would, for the first time in history, have obtained a decided advantage over the power of offence, but the impression is probably unfounded. Important as the precedent is, it is incomplete; and the points in which it is incomplete must be carefully examined and fully discussed, if we are to get from it all the instruction which it is capable of yielding. The fight brought out all the strong points of iron ships, but none of their weak ones; and the first question which suggests itself is, what these weak points are? The first and great weak point of an iron-sided ship is the screw. Once succeeded in disabling the screw, and the ship lies on the water like a log, and is at the mercy of its antagonist, who, by the supposition, can choose his own position, and either hammer at a weak point, or run her down. The second half of the alternative seems to be the most formidable. The attempt of the *Merrimac* to repeat on the *Monitor* the manœuvre which was fatal to the *Cumberland*, appears to have been frustrated by the circumstance that both ships were in motion in the same direction, so that the blow was delivered with a momentum produced only by the difference of velocity between their respective rates of motion. If the *Monitor's* screw had been disabled, so that the blow given by the *Merrimac* had fallen with its full weight, the result might have been altogether different. Thus, the first object in fighting an iron-sided ship should be to disable her screw. This is by no means a hopeless undertaking, for the situation of the screw is not inaccessible, and a single well-aimed shot from one of the enormous guns now in use would effectually stop its revolutions, and remind Achilles emphatically of the tenderness of his heel. Whatever other advantages iron ships may have over forts, this disadvantage can hardly be compensated. It is quite true that an uninjured ironside might easily destroy a dock-yard, in defiance of the contents of every battery on the coast, but it is no less true that a single well-aimed shot might convert it into a helpless and drifting hulk. Shot, again, are not the only danger to which screws are exposed. We constantly read of accidents in ordinary navigation caused by the screw fouling. Its action, of course, produces a strong eddy, and if sails or ropes are drawn into it the screw chokes itself and becomes useless. Would it be quite impossible to take a hint from this for purposes of defence? Nautical ingenuity could surely devise means by which an iron battery entering a hostile port might be encountered by antagonists which her own motions would convert into the right thing in the right place. For example, ropes supported by buoys stretched across a narrow channel would, probably, not be noticed by a vessel trying to enter it, especially in the smoke of an engagement, but if she passed over them they would almost infallibly catch and choke the screw. Steam rams furnish another mode of assailing this weak point. Small and strong vessels specially adapted for the purpose might pass under the sterns of batteries, whilst engaged or advancing to the attack, in such a manner as to shoulder the screw, as it were, and so rub, break, or displace it, without interfering with the rest of the ship; and it would be no easy matter for a vessel already occupied with an antagonist of her own size to avoid such assaults.

The sides of iron-plated ships may, at first sight, appear to have been proved by the late action to be invulnerable, and no doubt there is a sense, and a most important one, in which this is true. "Invulnerable," however, is not the right word. "Impenetrable" expresses the fact more nearly. It certainly does appear that to attempt, by any cannon now in use, to drive holes through plates of iron five inches thick properly backed by timber, may, for practical purposes, be considered as impossible; but armour which cannot be pierced may be stove in, and the probability is that if the forces of attack and defence are to be put once more on a level, it will be effected in this manner. Experience gives us some light on this. Carronades were invented late in the last war, and were used with startling effects. The carronade (so called from the Carron Works, where they were first manufactured), was a short and large gun, which threw heavy balls in virtue of its size; and threw them with a low velocity in virtue of its shortness, by reason of which the ball was exposed to the action of the powder for a shorter time than in longer guns. The ball thus struck the side of the ship with a push rather than a blow, and shattered rather than pierced the place where it struck. From this peculiarity, carronades were known in the navy as "smashers," and they produced tremendous and even decisive effects in several actions. Of course, such carronades as were in use forty or fifty years ago, would be mere popguns against a ship like the *Monitor* or the *Warrior*; but if the principle were applied

on a proportional scale, the results might be very different. Most of our modern experiments on iron ships have been made with a view to sending the shot through the armour. Might it not be desirable to ascertain the effect of firing a short gun with an enormously heavy shot at close quarters? It is one of the advantages of the substitution of bolts for round cannon balls, that the weight of the projectile can be greatly increased without much or indeed any increase in the bore of the gun. Such a shot, cut off square at the end, might possibly drive in the whole side of the ship; for it must be remembered that the plates with which iron-sided ships are covered are merely contiguous, and are fastened, not to each other, but to the timber by which they are backed. It is thus possible that a blow, heavy enough to drive in the timbers on which the plate rests, might drive in plate, timber, and all, and so produce a breach which would sink the ship.

The strongest form in which this principle could be applied is that of steam rams. By the use of the ram the whole vessel is converted into one gigantic projectile, moving through the water at a velocity, perhaps more effective for smashing purposes than that of a cannon-ball. The difficulty in using them appears to be, that if both vessels are in motion in the same direction, the force of the blow is proportioned only to the difference between their velocities, which may be very small; but there can be no question of their awful power under favourable circumstances. It was doubted whether the shock produced by the concussion of the ram and the ship struck by it would not be so great as to displace the machinery of the former. But this does not seem to have occurred in the case of the *Merrimac*. She ripped up the *Cumberland* without receiving any particular damage, yet she was built, not as a ram, but as an ordinary wooden frigate, and had been fitted up in the greatest possible hurry, after being burnt down to the water's edge. The ill success of her attempt to run down the *Monitor* may be explained, apart from the question of speed, by the fact that the *Monitor* lay so low in the water that the *Merrimac* seems to have run on to, rather than into, her, and thus the result cannot be considered to prove anything as to the effect which a ram might produce on an iron-sided ship, if it were a real ram made for the purpose, and if the sides of the ship were so constructed as to give her a full blow at them.

Viewing the matter on the large scale, it appears clear, that whatever increases the power of defence as compared with those of offence is a good thing for us. We obviously have it in our power, by converting our wooden walls into iron walls, and by the proper use of heavy artillery and steam rams, to convert the whole of this island into a perfectly impregnable and even unapproachable fortress. No other nation is likely ever to be able to fit out a whole fleet of iron transports to carry to our shores such an invading army as would have the slightest chance of success, and an army embarked on a wooden fleet would be as helpless in the presence of a few iron vessels as a flock of sheep. Such a fleet would, in a couple of hours, be a collection of slaughter-houses. Whatever else the battle of Hampton Roads may teach, it proves that, until our flag is driven altogether from the sea, an invasion of this country would be an act of suicidal madness.

It may be observed in conclusion that the awful destruction, which the wooden frigates of the Northerners sustained so heroically, was caused not so much by the fact that they were attacked by an iron antagonist, as by the enormous weight of metal with which all ships, both iron and wooden, are in these days provided. The *Cumberland*, it is true, was ripped up; but the *Congress* was simply smashed by the tremendous cannonade of the Dahlgrens and Columbiads mounted by the *Merrimac*. If the *Merrimac* had been made of wood, the result would have been precisely the same, with this important exception, that she herself would have undergone in her turn what she inflicted on her antagonist. All the accounts from the ships which were destroyed agree in testifying to the frightful power of the new guns. Every shot that struck went through and through the devoted ships, killing numbers of men and inflicting wounds ghastly beyond former experience. No doubt, the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor* would have suffered as much but for their armour, and we may be thankful that the invention of iron ships has saved the world from the spectacle which would otherwise have most assuredly been exhibited to it some time or other, of a conflict between fleets equipped with instruments of destruction effectual out of all proportion to their means of defence. The battle in Hampton Roads proves, amongst other things, that if two wooden fleets were to meet in the present day, the greater part of each would be sent to the bottom in an hour or two after they came to close quarters.

POLAND.

THE "order" which reigns at Warsaw has been too long known to Europe as the very type of merciless and inflexible repression; and the accounts which, from week to week, arrive from that city, assure us that the iron hand which has so long pressed it to the ground is as firm, as vigorous, and as unsparing as ever. There is quiet indeed, but we catch the sound of stifled sobs and groans, of

curse not loud but deep, the tramp of an occupying army, the hiss of the Cossack whip. Poland is the traditional victim of the European community. Generation after generation of statesmen have commiserated her sufferings, and protested against her wrongs. Nearly seventy years ago, the two great leaders of English politics forgot for a moment their mutual animosities, to join in a common invective against the barefaced lawlessness which was dismembering an ancient kingdom. The work which was begun in crime has been carried out with a cruel consistency to its natural results. One wrongful act necessitates another, and the original perpetrators of a national outrage entailed on their successors the impossible task of dealing equitably with a tangled and complicated injustice. Never were rights more clearly defined, or more resolutely broken through. At the great European settlement of 1815, the privileges of Poland, so far from being treated as of subsidiary importance, were the subject of prolonged and anxious negotiation; and though the arrangements at first contemplated were lost sight of in the alarm at Napoleon's escape, and Lord Castlereagh was induced to accept a less favourable compromise than he might reasonably have exacted, still the Treaty of Vienna gives the Polish question the place of honour, and the first fourteen articles are occupied with a precise statement of the position which it was intended that the different Polish provinces should thenceforward occupy. As some expressions which fell from Lord Russell in the recent debate were calculated to throw a shade of uncertainty on the subject, it may be worth while to go over the oft-trodden ground once more, and to show that it is in no mere sentimental sense that the present condition of Poland is said to be an offence against international justice. The arrangements made in 1815 were, no doubt, as Lord Russell said, very imperfect, but they were quite sufficient for the purpose of showing that Russia has throughout been monstrously in the wrong. "No part of the concessions," said the Foreign Secretary, "made by the Emperor Alexander to his Polish subjects were enumerated or sanctioned by the Congress of Vienna, and, therefore, they cannot be held specifically as European obligations." This is so far true that the details of constitutional administration were left to the decision of the Czar; but it must not be therefore supposed that the granting of any constitution was left optional, or that the distinct nationality of Poland was not made an essential portion of the treaty. The Emperor Alexander himself, at any rate, did not take that view of the subject. "Your restoration," he said at the opening of the first Polish Diet at Warsaw, "is defined by solemn treaties; it is sanctioned by the constitutional chart. The inviolability of these engagements and of that fundamental law insures for Poland henceforth an honourable place among European nations." The first article of the treaty, however, puts the matter beyond a doubt. "His Imperial Majesty," it is said, "reserves to himself to give to this State, enjoying a distinct administration, the internal improvement which he shall think proper. He shall assume with his other titles that of Czar, King of Poland, agreeably to the form established for the titles of his other possessions. The Poles, respectively subjects of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, shall obtain a representation and national institutions, regulated according to the degree of political consideration that each of the Governments to which they shall belong shall judge expedient and proper to grant them." National representative institutions, it will be observed, are compulsory; the precise nature of those institutions is optional, but in another treaty, embodied in the principal treaty of Vienna, it is laid down that they are to be such as shall insure to the Poles "the preservation of their nationality." It is the persistent, unrelenting violation of this right which, ever since the treaty, has kept the Polish nation in a ferment; and this has bred the deep animosities which at one time smoulder in sullen discontent, at another blaze out into violent rebellion, but which are in either case alike fatal to peaceable, orderly, and progressive government. The constitution of the Emperor Alexander seemed to have been granted for the mere purpose of reminding his subjects of the liberties which they lost. Freedom of the person and of the press, the convocation of a Diet at least every two years, the submission of a budget to the Diet at least every four years, the preservation of the Polish language, the restriction of public appointments to Poles, a national army, freedom of commerce, facilities of transport—such were the bright promises of the deceitful dawn. The day broke, and the stern reality disclosed itself. One disappointment after another goaded the nation first into passive resistance, at last into positive insurrection, and insurrection was made the pretext for stripping the reconquered province of the privileges which the treaty secured to it. England raised a voice of protest. "The contracting parties to the Treaty of Vienna," said Lord Palmerston after the fall of Warsaw, "have a right to require that the constitution of Poland should not be touched." Russia still pressed the claims of victory; but the English Government still adhered to the opinion previously expressed, "that the true interpretation of the Treaty of Vienna required that the Polish constitution should remain as before the revolution, and that Russia had no right to abolish it." The long, stern reign of Nicholas was the insulting reply to an ineffectual remonstrance. One right after

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another disappeared; class after class was driven to disaffection; Poland cowered lower and lower beneath the blows of her oppressor. A system of deliberate denationalization was carried into effect: government, language, education, law, all were Russianized; military tribunals accused, judged, and condemned, without publicity and without appeal. The accession of a new sovereign shed a gleam of hope upon the dreary scene. The wound, however, was too inveterate to be cured by the touch of a well-intentioned prince. "Il y a des conjonctures," says the proverb, "dans lesquelles on ne peut faire que des fautes," and the good nature of Alexander seems only to have complicated and aggravated the prevailing distress. By a circular of last year Prince Gortschakoff invited the attention of Europe to the benevolent schemes and liberal measures of his Imperial master. A Council of State, "admitting largely the indigenous element," district and municipal assemblies, "based on the elective principle," were amongst the chief reforms of the promising programme. Those who have best reason to know, are strongest in asserting the unreality of these concessions, and increasing disaffection attests that the sentiments of the populace have still as much as ever to be conciliated. All last autumn and winter Poland was held in a state of siege, and military tribunals of the most arbitrary kind superseded every other mode of judicial administration. The very consolations of religion were denied to men whose devotion was inconveniently akin to patriotism. All the brutalities of a Cossack soldiery were allowed, and even enjoined, against inoffensive crowds, whose gravest delinquency was a regret for the name and the existence of their Fatherland. Civilized Europe shuddered to hear of unarmed men and women shot down in cold blood, of churches converted into shambles, of peaceable citizens trampled under foot, of one outrage succeeding another, each more wanton, more barbarous, and more deliberate than the last. If these are the results to which Prince Gortschakoff's circular is intended to point, England can have but one reply: "I will take the liberty of saying," such was the Premier's statement last summer, "that perhaps the greatest violation of a treaty that has ever taken place in the history of the world, was that which occurred in the case of Poland." At present, he would probably feel disposed to add, that in no case had violated faith borne a richer crop of misery, or a wrongful act entailed upon its victims and its perpetrators alike a longer or sadder list of national catastrophes.

GUBBINISM AND COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION.

MR. GUBBINS, of Benares, is of opinion that no gentleman who passes an examination with credit is likely to be able to ride, and the nonsense is gravely repeated by members of Parliament as a reason for throwing discredit on the plan for opening the Civil Service of India to public competition. Mr. Gubbins is also of opinion that the successful candidates for Indian appointments do not come up to the standard of perfection once common among Haileybury men; and that they are generally wanting in the manners and tone of gentlemen. Most of the opposition to the principles advocated by the Royal Commission of 1853 is, no doubt, based upon theories of similar value to those laid down by the gentlemanly Mr. Gubbins. As for the young men who have been lately sent out to India under the new system, we do not care to defend them—they must be contented to put up with the censure of a number of their seniors, who, having belonged to the ancient *régime*, naturally are of opinion that there is nothing like it. Even were it true that the first body of civil servants who have been draughted off to Calcutta and Madras under the new *régime* are deficient in the horsebreaking qualities of their predecessors, it would not prove much. In the first place, they are young, and they have a life before them to learn in. Nor is the object of opening the path of honour and ambition to men of talent and education merely to benefit men of talent and education themselves. That, no doubt, is something, for there is no special virtue about the nephews of old India directors which makes them *ipso facto* gentlemen, nor is there any inherent vice in scholarship and learning which prevents a young gentleman of intellectual ability from learning to manage a horse when occasion comes. The recent alterations would be extremely useful if they had no other effect than to inspire the class who would have been sent out under the old system to make themselves competent candidates for election under the new. But, in the second place, with all respect for the authorities quoted, we are not in the least inclined to believe the fact. Haileybury was not a nursery of all the virtues, nor has the old Indian service been so remarkable for morality and good behaviour that nothing can enter into comparison with it. Precisely the same foolish objections have been urged time after time against many important measures of reform. The method of free election to university fellowship has been condemned in like terms by many an aristocratic college Gubbins. Time is showing every day the innate ignorance and impertinence of this species of criticism. Scholars and gentlemen are not always synonymous names, but on the whole the proverbial combination is quite as proper as that which unites the characters of officers and gentlemen. At the bar, in the army, and in the church, experience teaches us, in

spite of professional Gubbinsism, that the men of the highest character, on the whole, are men of intellectual power and distinction.

The amendment with which Mr. Baillie Cochrane and Mr. Peacocke flirted for a few hours in the course of Tuesday's debate was about as logical as might be expected from gentlemen who have a profound dislike to examination. "Many of the qualities constituting a good public officer,—good principles, good habits, sound judgment, general intelligence, and energy,—cannot be tested by any plan of public competition; the introduction, therefore, of such a system into all the departments of the public service would be very injurious to their efficiency." Nobody in his senses, except perhaps a Chinese mandarin, ever maintained that an examination is a fiery and crucial ordeal, which is a complete test of moral and mental capacity. All that is said by those who are good judges on the point is, that it is a *better* test of Mr. Cochrane's list of "qualities" than a system of close patronage. Lord Stanley, indeed, well remarked that it was by no means an indifferent proof even of the "qualities" in question. But the real question is, what is to be given us in its place? An able writer once said, that by an educational standard we were at least sure of obtaining a candidate who had been educated, while appointments on moral grounds would only result in our getting hold of "somebody's nephew." We wish we were even sure of that. If "somebody's nephew" were invariably the fortunate competitor, there would be some faint hope that "somebody" might be responsible for the good conduct of his kinsman. Unfortunately, as matters stand at present, we only manage to secure the nephew of an independent elector, who has given "somebody" his vote. It is astonishing in the face of all that is known about the distribution of civil patronage, that anybody should have the temerity to assert, or the credulity to believe, that the influence by which the nominee succeeds is a real check upon him. Yet this stale and ridiculous assertion is duly made, and possibly credited, each time that it is proposed to bestow the patronage of the country on those who have given us the best guarantee possible of their sense of responsibility, namely, by educating themselves.

The instances so carefully collected by political Gubbinses in the country (we mean no personal disrespect to the Commissioner of Benares in applying his name to a class whose prejudices and interests he represents) of ludicrous misappointments which are due to the competitive system, prove very little. If more careers were open to young men of character and attainments, they would be less anxious to clutch at the first that presented itself, and would exercise more wisdom in their ambition. Where are all the names of the pious who have perished? asked the sceptical philosopher who was shown the votive offerings of the pious sailors who had been saved by the intercession of their gods. Mr. Clifford tells us of two country schoolmasters who found their way into the ranks of the boatmen of the Excise. Where is the list of the *protégés* of Gubbinsism who have been named to posts equally inappropriate? The Fitzbattleaxes have succeeded in returning a younger son as the member for their division of the county. What shall be given to the relations of the faithful few whose votes have decided the election? Free access to all the humbler civil posts that the Fitzbattleaxes can command. That invaluable lawyer Buzfuz has shown himself active in canvassing, and useful in getting up counter-petitions to secure the family borough. Therefore, a recordership is the reward in all probability of the profound and learned Mr. Buzfuz; and clerkships in the Treasury are bestowed upon his sons. The rector of the parish has a cousin who is in the House. Tide-waiterships, by right of his cousin's position, belong to some youth whom the rector delighteth to honour. Such is the system which at present holds its ground against competition. We are far from saying that no candidate of merit makes his way in together with the crowd who press in at the broad gate of political promotion, or that merit has never anything to do with one's good luck. What we complain of is, that even those who win on account of their merit, win nevertheless by favour. People who cry out against these abuses, are reproached with wishing to deliver over the administration of the country to the hands of young pedants. No charge can be more absurdly unjust. Nobody asks that a young gentleman who has done well at the university should be put into a place of emolument or authority. We only ask that he should be allowed to take his chance of rising with the other young gentlemen of his age who have no such antecedents on which to found their claims. He has as good a right to expect to do well in the civil service as that of his contemporaries who have never done anything more important than following his lordship's fox-hounds. Give him, then, the opportunity of seeing whether in course of time he may not educate himself into being a valuable public servant. At present he is robbed, not of political power or authority—that no one proposes to entrust to him. He is robbed of future possibilities. When he is twenty years older, he finds men who were once his inferiors, converted into good civil officers. What has made them such, has been the training from which he has been excluded. If he had possessed their chances, it is only reasonable to suppose that he would have been a still better civil officer than even they.

Much folly and more insolence is periodically displayed in the reflections that are so often cast upon the questions set to the civil candidates, and on the able examiners who set them. If Mr. Clifford and Mr. Peacocke mean that no questions are to be put in the civil examinations which they themselves are not able to answer, they had better say so. We do not, however, think that a middle-aged member of Parliament is the best judge of the problems in history or language which it is desirable to submit to young men who have just completed their education; and, indeed, it so happens that the two philological questions, of which Mr. Peacocke makes such unnecessary fun, are questions which could be readily solved by any person of moderate scholastic attainments. Mr. Bentinck's language on the subject is still more absurd, and shows to demonstration that he is talking beyond his depth. Everybody who has ever been examined at a University knows that no candidate is expected to exhaust all human knowledge on the subjects proposed. Questions are set on a wide circle of topics, with the object of preventing any meritorious examinee from finding himself fixed by a point to which he has not happened to direct his attention. Abstruse questions are thrown in here and there, partly, no doubt, that abstruse learning may be rewarded; but chiefly in order to test the impromptu ability with which a clever man can bring what he does know to bear on the discussion of what he does not. Mr. Bentinck, with the ludicrous pomposity of ignorance, thinks that this opens a door to favouritism and fraud. He goes on to protest against any "tribunal which is secret and irresponsible in its functions." This is the acme of Gubbinism, and we congratulate the advocates of the old system of patronage on a champion whose objection to examinations is of so moral and constitutional a kind.

Lord Stanley's speech on Tuesday night was worthy of himself and of the country. It is a compendium of luminous answers to all the objections that have been started to free competition. He left nothing untouched that was advanced upon the opposite side, and he discussed each point with a brevity and conciseness that thoroughly deserves admiration. The scandals of Tory patronage are in some slight degree redeemed by the support lent by the ablest member of the Tory Administration to the cause of Reform. That cause would be more certain of success if it were not deserted by its own natural protectors and supporters. For many years back the system of competitive examinations has been sneered at by the very order in whose interest it is introduced. The educated classes have contracted a curious habit of holding on by the class above to protect themselves against the class below. The day, it is to be hoped, is far distant when political power will fall into the hands of mere men of letters. But the true question at issue is, not whether men of letters are to have power, but whether their sons are to have a fair start in life? Unhappily, the grand and venerable watchword of the old Liberal party has fallen into disrepute. Peace, retrenchment, and reform, is still a noble motto, though it may have been prepared by demagogues. Theologians are in the habit of talking of the "Church of the future;" it would be as well if politicians sometimes thought of the "Liberal party of the future." Peace is a great blessing, though it is not better than national honour; retrenchment is a valuable end, though it should be held of less consequence than national security; and Reform is a noble cause, for all the discredit cast on it by monster constituencies and democratic charlatans; and amidst the abuses which demand reform, none is so flagrant as the habitual abuse of the patronage of Government.

BAD SERMONS.

A CELEBRATED writer once excused himself for preferring a walk in the country on a Sunday morning to any more serious plan for spending the hours between eleven o'clock and one, upon the plea that it was just as useful to look for sermons in stones as to hear a sermon from a stick. A bad sermon is no doubt a very trying thing, both to the spirits and to the backbone; and if, as is usually the case in churches, one is exposed all the time to alternate blasts of hot and cold air about the nape of the neck, it soon becomes almost intolerable. The time is come to consider seriously whether nothing can be done either to make sermons generally better, or to render them more palatable to congregations. In the country perhaps it does not so much matter. It is the squire's business to sit the discourse out, for an example or encouragement to his neighbours, and a dull parson is as much an appanage of landed property, as a land-tax or a tithe. The evil in large towns is more serious. Numbers of well-meaning people absent themselves at every possible opportunity, knowing that their non-attendance will never be remarked. On the other hand, a bad sermon has its uses, and for many purposes is far better than no sermon at all. Poor people and servants would soon desert the church for the chapel, if the parson did not preach to them. They consider it a privilege to which they are entitled, and great religious good is frequently done in squalid or disreputable districts by sermons which, as regards composition and feeling, are absolutely below par. How is a clergyman to consult the spiritual requirements of a large and motley assembly? If he addresses himself to the educated and the upper classes, he talks over the heads of one-half of his hearers. If he

adapts himself to what he imagines to be the religious wants of the poor, he never rises to the level of the rich. Mr. Robertson's sermons are, perhaps, as far as ability and interest go, model compositions for a congregation of sensible and intelligent men and women. They never would do for Spitalfields. They would be thrown entirely away. In the same way Mr. Spurgeon's somewhat familiar expositions are calculated to have a serious influence on the class which attends them with the most zeal; but they would very soon drive a fastidious audience to distraction; not because they are devoid of ability or earnestness, but because they are only suited for a particular object. If the Church of England were to abandon the task of providing for the spiritual necessities of the more educated classes, and to give herself up wholly to preaching and teaching among the poor, she would be performing but half her mission. It is, therefore, with regret that thinking people see a growing separation between the educated classes and the clergy. At our universities the complaint is becoming common, that the best men do not now-a-days take orders. There are many reasons for this; and the most important reason for all is, of course, to be found in the ephemeral storm of speculative doubt, which is at present passing over the heads of the rising generation. We are not, however, so much concerned on the present occasion with the causes as with the effects. The effect is this, and it is a lamentable one: men of ability do not enlist in the ranks of the Church's ministry, and the Church naturally loosens its hold on able laymen. Formerly the English Establishment was a centre of learning and intelligence. It still numbers among its priests hundreds of men who are a credit to their profession, not merely in piety, but in scholarship and sound sense. But though the moral and religious standard has not been lowered of late years, learning and talent on the other hand are doubtless on the decline. Clergymen are as zealous and as devoted in all probability as they ever were. Clergymen are also, as a rule, gentlemen;—certainly, as compared with the clergy in most parts of the Continent, they are a refined and honourable body. They are, however, no longer to be found in the van of education and of thought. As Melancthon said: *Doctores docti esse desierunt.*

The evil is a crying one, and the fault lies partly in the system of ecclesiastical patronage; but mainly with the bishops and the universities. It is of course difficult to maintain that individuals are to be raised to places of power and emolument irrespectively of their doctrinal views. This, of course, cannot be done. Prime Ministers are often too unsparingly criticised for appointments which they are compelled by the strength of public opinion to make. Nor is it quite true that ability in our Church passes frequently unrewarded. There are few first-rate writers and thinkers in the Clergy List who have not received either quietly or publicly some valuable recognition of their services. But in spite of all that can be said, the ministry is not much of a career in a worldly point of view. Hardworking men do not find that they are repaid for the substantial outlay of the best years of their life. Over the door of the profession is written: "Who enters here leaves hope of profit behind." This, as we have said, is the fault of the system. The authorities of the Church over our two great Universities are not, however, thereby excused. Who are to blame if the clergy are deficient in knowledge and learning? Partly those whose duty it is to keep the gate and who let uneducated and incompetent men slip through. The standard fixed by the Universities is a disgrace to the whole country. It is well known that the theological voluntary at Cambridge is little better than nothing. Oxford requires no more from future clergymen than she does from future foxhunters: a book of Cicero, a scrap of Greek, and a few classical verbs. The Bench of Bishops, it is true, are in the habit of attempting to supply the shortcomings of this most ecclesiastical, and yet most unecclesiastical, of universities. They impose a private examination on all candidates for holy orders who have nothing beyond an ordinary Oxford degree to show. The most difficult ordeal is supposed to be that instituted by the Bishop of Oxford himself. We are not exaggerating when we say that any man of sense, however ignorant of theology, might cram for it successfully in a month.

We do not know that we should be prepared to advocate the introduction into the present University curriculum of a distinct theological school. Such a plan would require to be carried out by men of broader and more comprehensive minds than are usually to be found at the head of a college. England, moreover, is rightly jealous of any increase of the theological influence of clergymen who cannot be trusted not to pervert it for the extension of their own sectional opinions. The High Church, the Broad Church, and the Low Church, all are bound to watch with jealousy each other's movements; and it is right and necessary that young men should not be lightly handed over to any particular kind of doctrinal teaching. What the University might do with propriety would be to raise its general standard. It is ludicrous in the present day to confer a degree on men who know nothing of languages except a few rudimentary pages of Greek and Latin, and who, as regards science and history, are as ignorant as children. It is said that a University cannot afford to be too squeamish. The country, we are told, wants a certain number of degree-certificates, and not a certain quantity of learning. We do not in the least believe it. A degree is not generally understood to mean nothing more than that the person who has obtained it has lived for three years among gentlemen. A certificate of residence would prove that. It is popularly believed to be a warrant of something about the education of the individual who produces it. In reality, we are afraid, at present, it proves nothing; and the Universities, in leaving things as they stand, are simply trading on the illusions of the nation.

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The next best remedy for bad sermons, after reforming the education given by our Universities, would be perhaps to sever the sermon from the service, and to make attendance at the former a distinct thing from attendance at the latter. Why should not sermons be optional? They once were so, and they were all the better for it. They would be all the better for it once again. It cannot be a religious duty to listen to bad sermons; nor can it be a spiritual advantage to educated persons to sit through a discourse written by an uneducated preacher for an uneducated audience. It is said, and with absolute truth, that it is very desirable that all classes of society should meet together in religious worship; but sermons are not properly part of religious worship, so much as of religious instruction. They may be useful for some, and useless for others. Some people understand the text better than the preacher. For some people the preacher is a very fitting schoolmaster. Of one thing we may be certain that the English clergy would preach better and more to the point, if it were clearly laid down that it was not a spiritual duty for their congregations to listen to them. A bill has lately been introduced into Parliament for the relief of the clergy; we trust some one will propose a supplementary bill for the relief of their flocks.

MACLISE'S WATERLOO.

THE vast picture painted in the stereochrome or water-glass method, by Mr. Maclise, in the Royal Gallery of the Houses of Parliament, has lately been completed, 45 feet in length by some 13 feet in height. The chorus of artistic applause has accompanied the painter throughout his onerous task; and this chorus will, beyond a doubt, be taken up a hundred-fold by the general public, who are now beginning to gain admission to the work. It is, without exaggeration, a fit object for national pride. With this painting Mr. Maclise sets an indisputable seal upon all the brilliant promise and vivid aspirations of his career—a career which, while marked by powerful genius and many great pictorial faculties, had hitherto produced little upon which one could look with satisfaction as well as admiration, and far too much that was rapid, stilted, and even hateful. At length the greatest opportunity of his life has come, and, to his lasting renown, Mr. Maclise has been equal to it, and superior to himself. He has produced a work which stands without competitor in England, and which no continental masterpiece can possibly put to shame. We can award it no higher praise than to say that its completion, in time to be seen by the throng of foreign visitors whom this year will bring us, is the most fortunate circumstance which could have happened for the credit of British art.

Before describing the picture in its details, we may refer briefly to the nature of the process termed stereochrome, or water-glass painting.

"Water-glass" is to be understood in the sense of "liquefied glass," or silica rendered fluid by combination with an alkali, such as potass, soda, or lime. The soda or "natron" water-glass, however, is considered inferior to the potass or "kali" water-glass, the exact composition of which is given as follows: "It is composed of quartz powder and purified potass 333, according to Fuchs's direction. The solution of this kali water-glass, of 1.2 specific gravity, is mixed with the fourteenth part of a caustic alkali of 1.33 specific gravity, thus forming what may be called the fixing water-glass." This, in the actual fixing, is generally diluted with one quarter part of water. Another recipe is two parts of water to one of water-glass; about thirty quarts of the dilute solution going to fix a picture of the size of Mr. Maclise's.

The painter who purposes to use water-glass may look upon himself as a fresco painter freed from all the trammels of fresco. He takes for his picture, as in fresco, a plaster ground, containing silica (quartz-sand), but rougher than as required for the fresco process, being worked by the mason, in the operation called "floating," with a wooden instead of an iron hand-float. On his duly-prepared ground the water-glass painter uses the same pigments as for fresco; not needing, according to Mr. Maclise's experience, to avoid the animal or vegetable pigments, through fear of their fading. He dilutes his colours with nothing but simple water. When he has finished painting, the water-glass comes into play, for the purpose of fixing the picture, rendering it, as at present affirmed, perfectly safe inside a building or outside, and indestructible by either water or fire: some specimens have already lasted unharmed for twenty years. The water-glass is diffused over the painted surface by a "sprinkler," a species of slightly more complicated syringe: a mere ordinary syringe cannot, in Mr. Maclise's opinion, be altered so as to answer the purpose. Or a sort of bellows, worked by the feet, may be substituted for the sprinkler, and is considered to have the advantage of being less fatiguing to use.

We have said that the water-glass is used after the completion of the picture; and there is warrant for considering it best to postpone the process till then. But it is the glory of this method of painting that the artist can do almost exactly as he likes—a free man indeed in comparison with the bondman of fresco, bound to complete at a sitting whatever he takes in hand, and to leave it as it comes, at his peril. The water-glass painter may, if he chooses, dispense with a preliminary cartoon; he may paint a square inch or foot, fix it, re-touch it to any extent, and then fix it again. His ground is laid all at once, and he can leave work and resume it at pleasure. He can glaze, or work transparent colour over the ground colour, not, indeed, so perfectly as in oil-painting, but far earlier than in either oil or fresco painting—within ten minutes from the laying of the ground-colour. He can even glaze by the new process of shedding the colour, much diluted, through

the water-glass sprinkler, if he likes. Mr. Maclise has done this, quite to his own satisfaction. It is stated that black, cobalt, and chrome red, are more difficult to fix by the water-glass than other colours.

The nature of water-glass, and its power of penetrating and combining with a plaster containing quartz sand, by the affinity of the silica present in both materials, are not new discoveries. It is only of late, however, that some of the German painters, casting about for a substitute for fresco, applied the principle to their art. It has been carried out on the completest scale in the New Museum of Berlin, by Kaulbach and others, whose pictures Mr. Maclise examined in the autumn of 1858, before venturing to adopt the process in executing the cartoon which he had previously prepared of "The Meeting of Wellington and Blücher on the Field of Waterloo after the Victory."

Such is the definition of his subject which Mr. Maclise has himself supplied in a report to the Fine Arts Commission; but it might more accurately be described as the parting of Blücher from Wellington after their hurried meeting—the English general leaving to the Prussian the main charge of the pursuit of the great French army, now dispersing in confusion. In the centre of the picture Blücher, eager and fresh, wrings hard the hand of Wellington, who looks, as a great captain should look after a hard-fought field, worn, dauntless, self-sustained, more sad than exultant. The difference in the parts borne by the two generals is indicated even in so small a point as the military travelling-cap of the Prussian, contrasting with the cocked hat of the Englishman. Wellington sits his bay Copenhagen; and his sword, bridle, and field-glass are taken from the objects themselves. By him are mounted Lord Arthur Hill, afterwards Lord Sandys, General Somerset, and the Honourable Henry Percy, who carried home the despatches and the captured eagles. Beside these are a few of the Life Guards, and of the First Regiment of Horse Guards Blue, being nearly all the survivors of that gallant corps. They preserve a thoroughly military demeanour. One holds aloft the tattered banner of the Blues, carried through the Peninsula, and now in Chelsea Hospital; one, a Life Guard, and a prominent foremost figure, having played all day the fierce match with Death, is now relapsing almost into the jaunty stiffness of the parade-ground. By Blücher are Gneisenau, to whom the pursuit was more especially confided, Nostedt, Bülow, Ziethen, and a Black Brunswicker, in his dusky green uniform and his death's-head cap, bearing his naked blackish sword. Very portrait-like and living, very finely characterized, are these historical faces; there is in them a sense of a great thing done and a great companion in arms to be in the presence of; firm and set, they are dominated by one electric feeling, united in heart as in cause. The painter has been above that frittering away of emotion by which a smaller man would have aimed to show his cleverness, in the assigning of separate and minor points of action and individuality to the several personages. With these foreign officers are the British officers attached to the Prussian army, Colonel Vandeleur and Sir Hussey Vivian, who rides a white charger snuffing at the face of a dead French carabineer—an incident which is of no small pictorial importance in bringing together the multifarious elements of so enormous a composition. Next to this left-central group is another, occupying a considerable space, admirably painted, and again subserving unity of interest—the Prussian band playing with a will (as one may well conceive they did) "God save the King," in honour of their British allies. Right between Wellington and Blücher come the white, shattered walls of the Belle Alliance, flanked by a deserted dove-house. Two of the pigeons lie dead upon the roof of the main building; others are resuming their wonted self-possession. The crescent moon stands white behind a cloud over Sir Hussey Vivian's head; and a few stars are coming out to the right in a sky which has scarcely assumed its twilight aspect, subsiding into a yellow horizon over the background heights, along which French soldiers, escaping with artillery, are attacked pell-mell by the English.

Having so far attended to the central action of the piece, with its accessory features, we now turn to some of the leading foreground incidents, commencing from the left. A Prussian surgeon feels the pulse of an Englishman; a Prussian hospital orderly carries off a French artillery officer not yet beyond hope. An English orderly binds up the leg of a colour-sergeant of Foot Guards, whose set face of pain and endurance tells his agony and his fortitude. The officer in command of a French gun lies across it dead, along with a carabineer. Above these are two Irish soldiers, Connaught Rangers. They have both been wounded, as arm in sling and bandaged head bear witness; they are cheering the Duke with the frantic pride of victory and nationality combined. Nothing in the picture is finer than the head of the foremost of these shattered, pain-contemning, triumphant Irishmen; one sympathizes with the zest of Mr. Maclise in giving them their heroic prominence. A Highland piper lies dead in front; his wounded right-arm is held by a tourniquet; he has been blowing his pipes till the last breath choked in his throat. His naked breast bears a locket with the hair of his Highland sweetheart. Then come another dead couple of Frenchmen, cuirassier and carabineer, the former with sword half-drawn from the scabbard: an English soldier next, dead or dying, his "brown Bess" with him to the end. Behind these is a Frenchman, possibly unwounded, though confused among the dying and the dead. There is in his face a sense of personal preservation mingled with the ruin of his cause; he hears in silent grimness the parting words of Blücher, starting upon the pursuit. A vacant space towards the centre of the foreground has been made use of to show the trampled relics of dog-rose and dockweed, the cast shoe of an artillery-horse, and the impress of it

stamped deep into the clayey soil, where the animal had strained and struggled to drag on his load. Between the very legs of Copenhagen are an Imperial Guard and another Frenchman, dead.

Just to the rear of the charger come three wounded men of the Life Guards, waving their swords in martial welcome to the Prussians; their trumpeter lies lifeless, with a drum stove in, and the wheel of an ammunition-waggon, near him. A wounded officer of Lancers is attended by the regimental doctor, who gives him a tumbler of hollands and water, and by a drummer with the medicine-case; a sergeant of Foot Guards sustains his head. Farther back is the leading episode of the epic—the “young gallant Howard” of “Childe Harold,” borne dead in the arms of soldiers of the three nations—one of the 42nd Highlanders, an English Foot Guard, and an Irish Fusilier. Very noble are these heads, mourning, as soldiers may mourn, with hard eyes, compressed lips, and that last fixed scrutiny of the face they shall never see more; the details of expression slightly varied, the type of emotion the same in all three. The head of Howard has been taken from a miniature in the possession of the family; it is beautiful and soldierly, and bears a happy suggestion of family likeness to Byron. In front is a chesnut-horse, with glazed eye and the sharpset ear now relaxing in death. His rider, a French Imperial Guard, is a corpse also. An Enniskillen dragoon is hard by, attended by a comrade. Behind is a smaller group of a Flemish soldier passed on through his last agony into the world of spirits by a friar, who has that hard aspect which may tell as much of long converse with pain and sorrow as of any natural want of sympathy. A nun and a *vivandière* are both by, the latter with a satchel full of epaulets, orders, and other knickknacks, taken from the victims of the battle; a baby reaches over to enjoy their glitter. A smaller kindred group appears of a Frenchman and an Englishman dead side by side, whom two peasant-women are rifling.

One point which deserves note in the invention of Mr. Maclise's picture is, that he has been rigidly historical in his incidents, introducing at this moment of the interview between Blücher and Wellington only such personages as were or may have been actually there at the time, and not allowing himself to combine with the composition any episodes or persons, however tempting to the artist, proper to an earlier period of the great day. In this respect he has set himself a good rule, and succeeded in acting upon it with a wealth of detail and a freedom of application which leave us nothing to regret. At the same time, we would not be understood to say that the opposite principle—that which derogates to some extent from literal fact for the sake of epic or pictorial interest—is in any degree illegitimate. Both rules are good, and capable of eliciting the highest powers of the painter—one man being more likely to do his best according to this system, and another according to that. But Mr. Maclise's rule, as being the more coercive, is the more arduous; and such unqualified success in it as he has here realized must be all the more counted to his credit.

The composition, broadly considered, falls into four main sections: the central group of Wellington and Blücher, flanked on the one side by British officers and Guards, with the Howard group, and on the other, by German officers and the Prussian band; the left and right wings of foreground, groups of wounded and slain; and the background portion, consisting of the pursuit. This arrangement is quite enough for order and symmetry, which yet does not sink into mechanical counterbalance; it enables the spectator to take in as a whole a composition of such huge size and multiplex detail; and (which is of paramount importance) it preserves in the picture a character suitable to it as part of an architectural whole. It is much to be deplored that the quantity of painted glass on each side of the Gallery injures the effect of this picture, as it will that of all the other pictures which are to cover both walls. The upper part of the painting is obscured in the morning by the glare of the sunlit windows immediately above it; and, towards two o'clock in the afternoon, when the sun has shifted round to the opposite side, a jack-o'-lantern play of coloured light tinges red, blue, or green, with fateful impartiality, the nose of the Iron Duke or of Sir Hussey Vivian's white charger, the ashen lips of the gallant Howard, or the grizzled moustache of the Prussian Commander-in-Chief. This should be remedied without delay, either by the use of some light covering to the windows according to the aspect of the sun, or, if needful (at any rate when the walls are painted all round), by the partial or even entire removal of the stained glass. Its heraldic angularities and shallow glare, though well enough in their way, are not so precious as to reconcile us to the daily damaging of such important pictorial work as Mr. Maclise's. In other parts of the Houses of Parliament the same objection applies still more strongly, only that the fate of the pictures is of less consequence.

Mr. Maclise deserves high praise for that without which a good conception of his subject would be a barren title to respect—the adequate and effective executive rendering of it. The ordinary defects of his style are but too well known; hard, leaden colour, metallic surface and texture, the barber's dummy ideal of beauty, and a staring, parading, attitudinizing treatment of incident and character. It amazes one to find his extraordinary capacity and merit linked to such lowering and damning faults. But in the Waterloo picture all this is so far corrected as to be scarcely in any way traceable. The painter's invariable qualities of clear-cut definition, and of exact, unsubordinated detail, are present here as elsewhere, but under such control as to constitute a merit rather than a defect. The tone of colour is solid, satisfactory, well sustained, and sufficiently modified; and the histrionic concep-

tion of heroism so fatal to most of Mr. Maclise's works may be said to make no appearance here, unless, perhaps, to a slight degree, in the face of Wellington, and there only in the manner of expressing the intention, not in the intention itself. In fact, the painting is throughout masterly, well balanced, and not liable to any serious objection. If, as we heartily hope, Mr. Maclise achieves as great a triumph in the stereochrome of the “Death of Nelson,” which he is about to paint on the corresponding opposite panel of the Royal Gallery, his position as a national painter will be prouder than that of any other British master, living or dead.

INCONSISTENCY.

LIKE many other words describing mental qualities, the words “consistency” and “inconsistency” have been made the texts for a cluster of remarks common enough to have become commonplace, yet sufficiently remote from the most ordinary use of the words, to suggest a more attentive examination of their value than commonplaces generally receive. According to the simplest of all views of character, consistency is a virtue, and not only a virtue, but one which can hardly be dispensed with so long as truth and honesty remain. According to the view of the matter embodied in the observations just referred to, it is as often a vice. Who cares, it is said, for consistency? All good institutions are unsystematic, and all useful men are inconsistent. Was not Sir Robert Peel the greatest statesman of our generation, and was he not also the very pattern of inconsistency? Were not his celebrated conversions on the Roman Catholic question and the Corn Laws at once the most characteristic, the most honourable, and the most useful acts of his life? If so, consistency is not a virtue at all; or if it is, inconsistency is also a virtue, or at any rate it is not a vice. Persons whose principal anxiety is to make more or less pungent observations upon the particular facts which circumstances present to their notice, feel little or no objection to believing that all things end in paradox, but such a conclusion is intolerable to those who believe that the mind may be made the subject of study like anything else, and that if our phraseology presents inconsistent results, the fault must lie not in the facts but in our phraseology. To such persons the conflict between the popular use of language and the smart sayings of those who delight in exposing its weaknesses, are deeply interesting, because, upon examination, they generally furnish clues which lead to some really interesting information about the subject matter to which the different phrases relate.

This is well illustrated by the words in question. Each side has a great deal to say for itself. As to the popular every-day use of the word, the fact that it exists is its justification. Observations which every one continually makes, or assumes by his conduct to be true, always contain a large amount of truth, for otherwise they would not be made. If consistency were not proved by experience to be, generally speaking, a good thing, no one would praise it, nor would attention be attracted by the denial of its goodness. As the exception proves the rule, so the fact that people ever think it worth their while to point out cases in which inconsistency is advantageous proves that in general it is injurious. On the other hand the smart sayings in praise of inconsistency unquestionably have truth enough in them to require attention. They are not mere jingles of words put together to surprise plain people, they do point to something real which either is, or at least appears to be, a qualification of the general truth that consistency is a good thing and inconsistency a bad one. What, then, is the truth towards parts of which each of these sets of common-places—the primary and the secondary common-place—respectively point? for some such truth there must be, unless we accept the impossible conclusion that truth itself is inconsistent—a conclusion which involves nothing less than universal scepticism.

The solution of the difficulty is not very profound, though it is not unconstructive. It is that the apparent contradiction is produced by the equivocal use of the word “good.” Those who say “consistency is a good thing,” generally mean, or ought to mean, something of this kind. The habit of acting consistently is generally produced by the presence of characteristics which generally tend to increase human happiness, and which generally gain for those who possess them the esteem of others. Those who say “inconsistency is a good thing,” mean, or ought to mean, that men are sometimes placed in such a position that they will consult their own or the public interest by changing their principles or opinions. Each of these propositions is not only true, but an approach to a truism, and there is nothing like a contradiction between them. When put together they amount to an assertion that though, as a general rule, consistency of conduct is evidence of the existence of good qualities, yet the actual state of the world is such that, in particular cases, inconsistent conduct promotes the interest of the public or of individuals. This is no more than one of the innumerable consequences of the fact that the world is not perfect.

Though this explanation will solve most of the paradoxes put forward about inconsistency, it does not altogether exhaust the subject. It may be said that not only does inconsistent conduct occasionally produce isolated good results (which might also be said of lying and murder), but willingness to act inconsistently, readiness to change either opinions or principles, may, under some circumstances, be in itself a quality which would entitle its possessor to general esteem; and how, it may be asked, can this be reconciled with the notion that consistency is in itself a virtue? The answer to this is that it is wrong to suppose that consistency, taken by and in itself, is a virtue, and

those who think so are mistaken. It is evidence from which people may, and often do, rightly infer the existence, not of one, but of several different qualities, most of which are virtues, and this is altogether another matter. The word consistency applies, not to the mind, but to conduct. It might reasonably be said that the conduct of a man who was fond of his wife one day, and without reason was unkind to her the day after, was inconsistent; but to say that he had an inconsistent mind would be, in strictness, to use words without meaning, unless the meaning were that the man was mad. What, then, are the mental qualities which usually produce consistency of conduct, and how far are they virtues? In so far as consistency of conduct tends to prove their existence, it tends to make a man rightly the object of esteem, otherwise not.

The first observation on the subject is, that almost everybody is almost invariably consistent. We all consistently eat when we are hungry, drink when we are thirsty, and rest when we are tired; and it is only in circumstances of a considerable degree of difficulty that any difference appears between those who are and those who are not what is emphatically called "consistent." The title is generally reserved for men who, in an emergency, and under a temptation to do otherwise, stand by the principles or conclusions at which they had previously arrived, and thus show that they are firm or honest. Thus, it is not the consistent conduct, but the quality supposed to be proved to exist by that conduct, which is the true subject of admiration. In common cases, consistency proves nothing except that the man who shows it is acted on by the same motives as the rest of the world. In uncommon cases it is properly made the subject of praise when there are circumstances to show that it is evidence of a good quality, such as honesty or firmness. It is obvious, however, that consistency might be evidence of bad qualities as well as good ones. A man might show consistency in malignity, sensuality, or falsehood, and this would be evidence only of the fact that he was extremely malignant, false, or sensual.

The extreme cases, which are always the best tests of principle, are in this instance easily solved. The difficulties connected with the use of the word arise from the fact that, instead of testing its meaning in this manner, people are apt to choose for examination instances in which it is difficult to say what is the inference to be drawn from a man's consistency; and thus they fall into the error of supposing that, because cases occur in which it is difficult to say whether consistency is caused by good qualities or bad ones, therefore consistency itself is sometimes good and sometimes bad;—an error exactly analogous to that of supposing that, because clergymen and people who have lost a relation both wear black clothes, clergymen lose relations more frequently than other people. A few words on these doubtful cases will complete the subject. Consistency may be evidence of mere obstinacy, and inconsistency (as in the case of Sir Robert Peel) may be evidence of candour and strength of mind; but there are cases in which it is very hard to say whether consistency or inconsistency would show the higher type of mind, and these are generally the cases which people are thinking of when they agitate the question, whether or not consistency is a virtue. The position of the High Churchmen who became Roman Catholics some fifteen or twenty years ago, supplies an excellent illustration of this difficulty. Almost every one who took that step did so under the pressure of the argument that to become a Roman Catholic was the course which he ought to take, unless he was prepared to give up the conclusions to which years of thought had conducted him. All of them were pitchforked into their new creed by the horns of a dilemma, which appeared to them to prove that so long as they remained where they were, they could give no intelligible systematic account of their religious convictions, and that the power of doing so could be acquired only by going on or by going back. Assuming a man to be in this frame of mind, what would be proved by his consistency or inconsistency? Ought his Protestant friends to think the better of him for acting consistently on his own view, and following his principles to the Roman Catholic goal, or ought they to be better pleased with him if he sacrificed his consistency, and stayed where he was? The fact that the question is put at all, of course implies an assumption that the motives of the person about whom it is asked are not mercenary or sordid, and that he acts with a *bona fide* view to do what appears to him to be his duty. A man so situated might be in either of two states of mind. He might review the different processes through which he had passed, test the arguments to which his mind had assented, make up his mind to be a saint and a sort of martyr, and take the plunge out of his old creed into a new one, with all the sacrifices which such a change involves. This would be consistent conduct, and it would imply a gentle, tender-hearted strictness of character, capable of being deluded by nonsense, but faithful to the nonsense by which it had been deluded.

On the other hand, such a man finding himself brought by what he had supposed to be excellent arguments, to what he felt to be an absurd conclusion, might wake to a consciousness, more or less explicit, of the fact that he really was the flighty, weak-minded ass that his friends had always supposed him to be. As this fact gradually dawned upon him, he might come to see that it was hardly to be expected that he should have consistent and systematic opinions about religion or anything else, and he would accordingly sneak back to his living like a whipped cur, with his tail more or less between his legs for a considerable time to come. This would be inconsistency; and the question is which of the two lines of conduct would be evidence of the higher type of character? In this case each of the two men is equally honest, but

the honesty of the one leads him to follow out false opinions at the expense of considerable personal sacrifices. The honesty of the other leads him to form a correct but unflattering estimate of his own understanding and character. Which of the two efforts of honesty deserves the greater amount of sympathy? The answer to the question will depend on the character of the person who asks it. Some may prefer the delicate self-respect which says, "I may be a fool, but if I am, I must act as such. My conduct must express and translate into action my feelings and opinions, be they good or bad; and I had rather act absurdly, if necessary, than do what I—being what I am—am not prepared to justify." Others might be better pleased with the shrewdness which feels rather than says, "I am by no means sure that I have not been making an ass of myself all along, but I am quite sure that if I take this step I shall make an ass of myself once for all. Hard words break no bones, and fine words butter no parsnips. I will stay where I am, and be confuted and despised rather than go farther and fare worse, for the first loss is the least loss." Whether people prefer Don Quixote to Sancho Panza is a question of taste, on which little more can be offered than affirmatives on the one side and negatives on the other.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

THE Parliamentary papers issued on Tuesday last, entitled "A Copy of the Correspondence between the Treasury and the British Museum, on the subject of providing additional Accommodation for the several Collections belonging to that Establishment," do not contain the promised details of the plan for the removal of the natural history collections to South Kensington, concerning the general merits of which scheme we invited our readers' attention last week. But they furnish us with the reasons which have induced the Government to prefer this method of relieving the present overgrown establishment in Great Russell-street, and likewise with some account of the manner in which the adoption of the proposed scheme has been brought about.

It appears that the report of Mr. Gregory's committee, which sat in 1860, and the subsequent arrival of large quantities of new sculptures from the Cyrenaica and from Budrum, together with the ardour of the newly-appointed head of the department of Greek and Roman antiquities, who was anxious to be allowed "to rearrange the Elgin Rooms," induced the Trustees, in the autumn of 1860 and following spring, to address several letters to the Treasury, requesting information as to the "general principles" on which plans for "providing additional accommodation for the collection" were to be founded, particularly with respect to the removal or non-removal of some of the collections. In reply thereto, after being kept waiting a year, the Trustees received a copy of a Treasury Minute, dated the 12th of November, 1861, in which the whole subject is discussed. The Lords of the Treasury have arrived at the conclusion, that "in their judgment some of the collections ought to be removed from the present buildings;" and further, that "they will be prepared to make proposals, at the proper time, to the Royal Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1851, with a view to the provision on the estate of the Commissioners of space and buildings which shall be adequate to receive at first the mineralogical, geological, and palæontological collections; and ultimately, in case it should be thought desirable, all those of the natural history departments."

The reasons which led to the above conclusion appear to have been mainly economical. After alluding to a resolution adopted by the Trustees on the 21st January, 1860, by a majority of *one*, in favour of the removal of the natural history collections, the Treasury Minute proceeds to consider the several reports of the special committee of Trustees appointed in November, 1859, and of Mr. Gregory's Parliamentary committee, which sat during the following session. These reports arrived, as is well known, at two very opposite conclusions. The special committee of Trustees thought it would be less expensive to move the natural history to Kensington. The "majority of the Museum Committee of the House of Commons" considered that it would be cheaper to allow it to remain in Bloomsbury. The Lords of the Treasury in their Minute pithily remark, that "it is unfortunate that these authorities should be in conflict on many points." They shortly discuss the comparative merits of the two sites, and observe, that "it seems difficult to find reasons for the opinion that, in a city of three million inhabitants, rapidly increasing from year to year in every direction, it can be for the convenience of the population that all the multifarious collections of literature, science, and art, should be concentrated in a single spot." They proceed to the much-disputed question of economy, and are "certainly inclined to attach more weight to the reasonings and authority of the very distinguished superintendent of the department of natural history, than has been assigned to them by the (Parliamentary) committee." They finally arrive at the conclusion which we have already mentioned, in favour of the gradual removal of the natural history department, under the impression that the economy thus to be effected under the two heads of site and fabric (that is, in buying the requisite land, and in not being obliged to continue, for uniformity's sake, the massive style of the erection in Great Russell-street) would conjointly be very large.

On the 3rd of December last the Trustees of the British Museum, at a special general meeting summoned for that purpose, proceeded to take into consideration the Treasury Minute. A resolution approving of the proposals thus made, and appointing a committee to consider the best way in which they could be carried out, was carried by a majority of 17 to 10,—it being

observable that the official Trustees all voted in the majority, and the independent members of that body mostly the other way. The proceedings of this committee, which consisted of the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Duke of Somerset, Mr. Walpole, Mr. Towneley, and Mr. Grote, and their elaborate report, which was presented to the Trustees, and adopted unanimously, at a meeting on the 10th of February last, is given at full length in the Parliamentary papers. The committee, we rejoice to learn, most wisely disapprove of the proposed *gradual* removal of the natural history collections, and recommend that the whole of them should be "speedily and simultaneously" transferred to the new site. It certainly would have been a great mistake to have made a piece-meal job of the removal, leaving part of the natural history collections in one spot and part in another. Half-measures please nobody. And, if the proposed transfer is to be made, it should obviously be carried out as quickly as possible. The impending change would naturally operate just as the possibility of it has long done—as a valid excuse for stopping all addition and amelioration of the collections in their present situation. With regard to the botany, the committee very pertinently remark that it is a question whether it would not be better to transfer this part of the natural history collections to Kew, "with the exception of a small series for the illustration of fossil botany." It is, in fact, notorious that the botanical department of the British Museum has been long, to say the least of it, in an inefficient condition, and that all the real work in that branch of natural history is done in the herbarium attached to the Royal Gardens at Kew. Whether the Kew authorities, however, will thankfully receive what they are thus offered, is perhaps rather doubtful. It is probable that they would prefer being without the mass of these somewhat antiquated specimens, though there are doubtless many amongst them of great importance. The ethnological collection and the portraits suspended in the present bird-gallery are likewise recommended to be removed elsewhere. The grand total of space thus left vacant is estimated at 65,000 square feet. Further accommodation would be gained by certain alterations in the present building, by extension of the existing structure over the principal Librarian's garden, and by transferring the book-binding establishment to new workshops to be erected on the site now occupied by the soldiers' guard-room. It is justly considered that the luxury of sentinels might be dispensed with, to the advantage both of the Museum and of Her Majesty's Exchequer. The manner in which the space thus left free would be best employed for the additional accommodation urgently required by the administrative department of the Museum, for the exhibition of the collection of coins, medals, prints and drawings, and generally for the advantage of the collections to be retained in Great Russell-street, is pointed out in full detail. In conclusion, the Committee call the attention of the Trustees to the disfigurement of the present building by the expedients that have been adopted for the temporary shelter of the large recent additions to the collection of antiquities, and urge with reason that should their proposals "meet with the approbation of the Trustees and the sanction of the Government, they ought to be carried into effect without delay."

This report having been, as we have already stated, unanimously adopted, was communicated by the Trustees to the Treasury on the 11th of February last. After acknowledging its receipt "with great satisfaction," the Lords of the Treasury state, in reply, that they are prepared to introduce a bill into Parliament to legalize the separation of the collections, and to maintain the control of the Trustees over them. With regard to the former part of this proposal, we heartily wish her Majesty's Government success in their endeavours to obtain legislative sanction to so desirable an undertaking. But we do not feel so much sympathy with the latter part of the proposition. We trust that the House of Commons, after the energetic condemnation passed upon the present system of government in Great Russell-street by nearly every speaker in the recent debate on Lord Henry Lennox's motion, will be able to devise some better form of administration for the new Natural History Museum at South Kensington. Let the Trustees be left alone in their glory to reign in Bloomsbury; or, if this cannot be permitted, be reduced to the rank of a "Board of Visitors" at South Kensington. The new institution is much more likely to do well under a simpler system of government, and in direct connection with a responsible Minister.

DENMARK AND GERMANY.

THE long dispute between the Cabinets of Berlin and Copenhagen touching the German Duchies of the Danish Crown, has been compendiously summed up in three Latin phrases,—on the part of Denmark, *non possumus*; on the part of the German Powers, *nolumus*; and on the part of all the world besides, *nescimus*. This summary is, however, as truthful and accurate as it is epigrammatic. The Danes cannot give up the main point in dispute, because in their view it involves not only the fundamental rights of the Crown and the integrity of the kingdom, but their very existence as a nation. Prussia and the Germanic Confederation will not settle the dispute, if they can help it, because they derive so many advantages from keeping it open. It is almost the only question of any consequence on which the Federal Diet is agreed, and its unanimity on this head gives to the proceedings of that nebulous assembly a certain amount of European as well as local importance. However divided the Confederation may be on questions of domestic interest, the German feeling of all its members may be confidently appealed to in any proposed action against Denmark; and the periodical threat of Federal execu-

tion in Holstein is thus the cheapest, if not the only means, the Diet possesses of securing popularity at home or influence abroad. Prussia has an interest in the continuance of the quarrel, of precisely the same kind, only much deeper and more intense in its degree. It is the one question which enables the chief German Power to appear before Europe as the representative of the Confederation, and publicly take the lead in German affairs. Thus, in his first speech from the throne, the present King formally identified himself with the Confederation in the dispute with Denmark, and undertook the initiative in the further conduct of the quarrel. And Prussia having taken no part in the general affairs of Europe for many years, it is really the only question which furnishes serious occupation to the Foreign-office at Berlin. But, after all, the domestic uses of the question are of the most value to Prussia. Apart from the material advantages which the statesmen of Berlin may hope eventually to secure by keeping alive the quarrel, its immediate political use is of the utmost service, if not absolutely indispensable to the safety of the monarchy. It furnishes a convenient pretext for the repeated postponement of domestic reforms, and is almost the only remaining safety-valve for the over-charged enthusiasm of the most active and noisy class of patriots in the German Fatherland. If the dispute with Denmark were settled, these ingenious gentlemen would be thrown out of employment, or left to turn their energies against the Prussian Government itself. When we consider what they are capable of, to what extreme lengths their misdirected zeal may carry them, it is certainly not surprising that any Government exposed to its action should gladly employ all legitimate and even some questionable means to avert such a result. These excited patriots have, to a great extent, created what is called the Schleswig-Holstein question, and it assuredly is an appalling monument of misguided effort and perverted ingenuity. The facts and documents that constitute the legal basis of the quarrel are, indeed, comparatively few and simple, and were they fairly brought before any competent tribunal the whole matter might be settled in a few days. But those simple materials, having been subjected, for nearly twenty years, to the elaborate manipulation of idealist professors and subjective politicians, have altogether lost their original character, and undergone a transformation more wonderful than anything recorded in Ovid. From the depths of their moral consciousness these speculative patriots have evolved theory after theory, each in turn becoming the basis of new arguments and fresh evolutions, until, at length, the question has expanded to the dimensions of an enormous myth, with stages of progress and laws of development of its own. A corresponding Schleswig-Holstein literature has grown up, greater in bulk, and far more irrelevant and perplexing in its contents, than the celebrated Goethe literature which burdens the shelves of every respectable German library. This is in itself quite sufficient to explain and justify the resolute and incorrigible nescience of the world at large on the subject. The other countries of Europe know little or nothing of the real merits of the quarrel, and until some Caliph Omar shall appear to sweep the voluminous controversy away, they are wisely determined to remain in ignorance.

The only exception to this state of things—the only occasion, that is, in which other nations are roused from their habitual indifference—is when the quarrel, passing out of the usual chronic stage, becomes acute, and threatens the peace of Europe. Unfortunately this is the case at the present moment. The negotiations opened six months ago between the Cabinets of Copenhagen and Berlin, with a view to an amicable settlement, have practically come to an end, the time originally fixed upon for coming to an agreement having expired without anything being done. Federal execution is again virtually threatened, and the Danish Government has recently stated, in a despatch to the Prussian Cabinet, that under existing circumstances it will regard such execution as a *casus belli*. There can be no doubt, therefore, that any attempt at Federal execution would provoke a war between Denmark and Germany, and in the present disturbed state of Europe, it would be almost impossible for such a war to remain merely local. It would almost of necessity excite disturbances in other countries, and bring on a general war. There could not be a greater reproach to civilization than for Europe to be involved in war, or indeed for the sword to be drawn at all, on such trivial grounds. And as it lies mainly with the neutral powers to prevent, if possible, such a calamity, it is important that public opinion should be enlightened on the latest phase of this long dispute, and the actual position of the contending powers at the present moment. It will be remembered that the Diet threatened Denmark with Federal execution this time last year, because the enlarged legislative powers it had claimed for the provincial estates of Holstein had not been conceded. After some ineffectual attempts to satisfy the demands of the Estates and the Diet, the Danish Cabinet was prepared to let the Federal execution take its course, when England stepped in to prevent matters proceeding to this extremity. The English Government strongly urged that an attempt should be made to settle the disputed question of the Duchies by direct negotiation between the Cabinets of Copenhagen and Berlin, and in order to give time for this, the Danish Government undertook not to legislate for the whole monarchy until after the expiration of the financial year. As this understanding was arrived at last August, and the financial year did not close till the last day of the ensuing March, more than six months were allowed for effective negotiation. In October, accordingly, the Danish Minister opened communications with the Cabinet of Berlin, in a despatch containing the outline of a plan for the future government of the Duchies. This scheme proceeded on the principle of separating the German Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg—the only parties of the Danish monarchy connected

This account of the youngest of Customs in Thesiger, a navy at the battle of July, 1794. E as a midshipman at the bombard the heir to the of inheriting th it appeared at eruption of Mo ance, and it bec to carve his wa The young m age that his ed ary to apply h in order to enal although splen the young advo in his own pow and when, in hi Society of Gray career lay befor

with the Germanic Confederation—from the rest of the kingdom; and endowing them with almost complete legislative and administrative independence. Such a proposal obviously involved a considerable sacrifice on the part of Denmark, but it was the only one that could be made with any rational prospect of success, the Duchies and the Diet on their behalf having persistently rejected any project of a constitution for the whole monarchy. It was a liberal scheme, which appears to have been offered in a practical spirit, and had it been fairly entertained and discussed by the Cabinet of Berlin, some provisional solution of the difficulty might in all probability have been arrived at. But in reality its merits were never discussed at all. The Prussian Foreign Minister, in his reply, after alluding in general terms to the scheme, objects to the basis and objects of the negotiation. He declines to discuss any plan for the government of the German Duchies which does not include the Danish province of Schleswig, and refers to the negotiation and treaty which concluded the war between Denmark and the German powers ten years ago, as affording a legal foundation for this claim.

This assumption of a right to interfere in the affairs of Schleswig is the new and sinister element of the recent negotiations. It is quite true that the state of this Danish province has often been referred to in the previous negotiations, and Prussia has frequently made representations to the Danish Government on the much-disputed question as to rights and wrongs of the rival nationalities it contains. Both Prussia and the Confederation have also tried indirectly to usurp authority beyond the limits of the Federal territory. But neither power has hitherto formerly claimed a right to interfere in the government of Schleswig, or refused to discuss the affairs of Holstein and Lauenburg apart from those of this Danish province. Denmark has always firmly denied that there is any ground whatever for such a claim, and has uniformly refused to recognize it in any shape. It is difficult to see what pretence the treaty or the negotiations of 1851-2 afford for the right in support of which they are so confidently appealed to. The treaty itself is absolutely silent on the subject. It contains no reference direct or indirect to Schleswig or its affairs. And in the negotiations which preceded the treaty, the rights of the King of Denmark over this Danish province are not only carefully reserved, but fully acknowledged, both by Prussia and the Confederation. In a despatch written at the end of December, 1851, Baron Schleinitz says distinctly that "the relations of the Duchy of Schleswig, as a country outside Germany, are not themselves an object of discussion and negotiation for the Germanic Confederation," and the subsequent resolutions of the Diet on the subject are to the same effect. The Danish minister accordingly refuses to discuss the question of Schleswig raised by Count Bernstorff; the government of a Danish province being purely a domestic affair, with which neither the Confederation nor Prussia, as its representative, has anything to do. And the specified time for negotiation having been thus wasted in a useless discussion, the Danish Government proposes to proceed with that necessary legislation for the kingdom which has been so long arrested. Against this Count Bernstorff makes a formal protest, which the Danish minister declines to receive. The authority of the Diet being limited to Federal territory, it has no right whatever to interfere in the affairs of the kingdom of Denmark. The Danish Minister also reminds the Prussian Cabinet that under present circumstances any hostile demonstration, even in Holstein, would not be Federal execution, but war; for it would, in effect, be simply an appeal to force in order to compel a one-sided interpretation of documents whose meaning is disputed, and on behalf of claims which, in order to be recognized, must become the subject of regular international negotiation. The Diet has just added to the gravity of the crisis by indorsing the protest of the Prussian Cabinet, and thus formally claiming authority and jurisdiction beyond the limits of the Federal territory.

MEN OF MARK.—No. XXXV.

THE RIGHT HON. LORD CHELMSFORD.

This accomplished advocate and effective Parliamentary debater is the youngest and only surviving son of Charles Thesiger, Esq., Collector of Customs in the Island of St. Vincent, and nephew of Sir Frederic Thesiger, a naval officer of distinction, who was *aide-de-camp* to Lord Nelson at the battle of Copenhagen. Frederic was born in London in the month of July, 1794. Emulous to rival his uncle's naval career, he entered the navy as a midshipman, and, when only thirteen years of age, served in the *Cambria* at the bombardment of Copenhagen. The deaths of his brothers left him the heir to the paternal property, and he quitted the navy on the prospect of inheriting the family estates, when an event occurred which, disastrous as it appeared at the time, was the foundation of his present eminence. The eruption of Mount Souffrier, in St. Vincent's, destroyed his paternal inheritance, and it became necessary for him to choose another profession by which to carve his way to a competency.

The young midshipman had been withdrawn from school at so early an age that his education had been greatly neglected. It was, therefore, necessary to apply himself seriously to preliminary studies and self-improvement, in order to enable him to start fair in the great race in which the prizes, although splendid, are few, while the name of the failures is "Legion." But the young advocate was clever and clear-headed; he had a just confidence in his own powers; he was endowed with great industry and perseverance; and when, in his twenty-fifth year, he was called to the bar by the Hon. Society of Gray's Inn, not a few of his friends predicted that a brilliant career lay before him.

A barrister who selected Gray's for his Inn, and "the Home" for his circuit, may fairly be supposed to have known the *res angusta* of the poet in early life, or at all events to have laboured under no plethora of wealth on his entrance into his new profession. A few briefs, however, came in, and attorneys who wanted a clear and persuasive statement of facts and great quickness in seizing upon the weak point of an adversary's case, soon discovered Mr. Thesiger's merits.

Mr. Thesiger's first great success was achieved at the Essex Assizes, and, when a peerage was offered to him, a grateful recollection of the briefs that were showered upon him after his Chelmsford cause led him to the choice of his present title. In 1834 he obtained a silk gown. He was shortly afterwards engaged to defend O'Connell's seat for the city of Dublin. The inquiry lasted for several months, and O'Connell was unseated, but Mr. Thesiger gained golden suffrages, and a good professional business flowed rapidly in upon him. His next *cause célèbre* was the action brought by the late Lord de Ros against Mr. Cumming, for defamation in charging him with cheating at cards. Mr. Thesiger proved that Lord de Ros had been guilty of marking the cards, and also of reversing the pack by a sort of sleight of hand. His masterly explanation of the French trick of *sauter la coupe* will not soon be forgotten. Lord de Ros's practice of marking the cards with the nail of his hand, on the face of one of the corners, was clearly established, as also the convenient fit of coughing during which the card that had been the honour at the bottom of the pack became the turn-up card. It appeared that Lord de Ros was in the habit of playing whist at £5 points and £25 the rubber; and that, playing three times a week, he generally managed to pocket sums varying from £500 to £300 and £200. The jury returned a verdict for Mr. Thesiger's client, Mr. Cumming, and the Premier Baron of England left London abruptly by the Rotterdam steamer.

In the year 1840 the wife of Captain Heaviside, of the Dragoons, then resident at Brighton, eloped with Dr. Lardner, the well-known encyclopedist and writer on science. Mrs. Heaviside was an elegant woman, about thirty years of age, the mother of three children, while the doctor was considerably older, and of anything but engaging appearance. An action for damages was brought, and Mr. Thesiger, who conducted the case for the husband, denounced with great eloquence "the cool and calculating villany of a mechanical philosopher." The jury gave a verdict of £8,000 against the seducer, who, it is quite unnecessary to add, lived bitterly to repent his heartless conduct.

Mr. Thesiger had now obtained a foremost position at the Common Law Bar. As a *Nisi Prius* advocate he stood in the very first rank. To a dignified carriage and good address, which propitiated a jury at the first glance, he superadded a perfect elocution, a pleasing voice, and all the gifts and graces of an accomplished advocate. He had none of the supercilious style of insolence sometimes met with at the bar, and which implies a total disregard of the attorney, the client, the cause, and the fee. The writer of an amusing work, entitled "Adventures of an Attorney in Search of Practice," asserts that, distinguished as Mr. Thesiger unquestionably was for forensic power, his success was, perhaps, yet more to be attributed to his frank good humour. He was accessible, and a ready listener, and the evident geniality of his disposition predisposed every one in his favour. A recital of the forensic displays of a lawyer who, for more than twenty years, occupied the first rank in his profession, would lead us beyond the limits of the present sketch. It must suffice to say that Sir F. Thesiger was engaged as a leader in nearly all the heaviest and most important cases. We can only briefly refer to the part he took in the great issue directed out of Chancery, as to the will of the late Duchess of Manchester. He conducted the prosecution of Viscount Frankfort, in 1852, for a defamatory libel against Lord Henry Lennox, which was followed by a verdict and the imprisonment of the titled libeller for twelve months in the House of Correction. He was next engaged in the libel case *Achilli v. Newman*. Nothing could be more skilful than the manner in which he conducted Dr. Achilli's case, and although Sir A. Cockburn's defence was a masterpiece, and the prosecutor's credibility was a good deal shaken in cross-examination, yet Sir F. Thesiger took his stand on the character and balance of the evidence. Being materially aided by the difficulty of proving a legal justification of charges ranging over many years of time, and occurring in various countries, Sir Frederic obtained a verdict, and Dr. Newman was sentenced to pay a fine of £100.

Perhaps the most dramatic trial in modern annals, as it was certainly one of the most remarkable cases of detected fraud and imposture, was the case of *Smyth v. Smyth and Others*, tried at the Gloucester assizes about eight years ago. The plaintiff, calling himself Sir Richard Hugh Smyth, sought to establish his claim to the baronetcy and vast estates, valued at £30,000 a year, formerly enjoyed by the family of Smyth. Sir F. Thesiger, who was engaged to rebut the plaintiff's case, received a brief containing an extraordinary narrative of credulity on the one side, and of personation, fraud, and forgery on the part of the claimant to the baronetcy and estates. The plaintiff tendered himself for examination, and it was on his cross-examination by Sir Frederic that the defendants mainly relied for the proof of his imposture.

The *soi-disant* Sir R. H. Smyth, it appeared, had been brought up as the son of Provis, a carpenter of Warminster, but pretended to have good reason for believing himself to be the son of Sir Hugh Smyth, of Ashton Hall, near Bristol. His cross-examination occupied two entire days. On the second day the pretended baronet was completely cowed. He had been, to use a common phrase, turned inside out by one of the most skilful cross-examinations on record, until he seemed fully aware that his imposture had been detected by Sir F. Thesiger's searching questions. He requested permission, which was granted, to leave the court to recover himself. At this stage a remarkable occurrence brought the trial to an abrupt close, although half a hundred witnesses remained to be examined. The proceedings of the first day's trial had, fortunately, been published in the London papers, instead of being left, as is too often the custom, to be turned into a long and unwieldy narrative at the close of the trial. Sir Frederic, during the adjournment of the court, received a telegram from London. An inquiry was immediately sent back, and answered by the same means; and when the witness again ascended the box, Sir F. Thesiger asked the following question:—"Did you, in January last, apply to a person at No. 361, Oxford-street, to engrave for you the Bandon crest upon the rings produced, and also to engrave the name of Gookin on the brooch?"

The audience, many of whom knew the circumstances under which the inquiry was made, awaited the reply in breathless agitation. The witness faltered, turned pale, and answered in a faltering voice, "Yes, I did." The telegram had been sent by an Oxford-street tradesman, who having read the first day's proceedings in the *Times*, had recognized the rings and brooch as having been sold by him to the prisoner, and engraved by his order. "Tom Provis," for it was he, now stood confessed, and when he was further obliged to admit, in answer to his ruthless querist, that he had been sentenced to death for horse-stealing, but had got off with eighteen months' imprisonment, his own counsel threw up his brief, and Tom Provis, completely crest-fallen, was removed from the court in custody. He was afterwards tried for forging the wills which were the foundation of his claim. The alleged portrait of the deceased Sir Hugh proved to be that of John Provis; the alleged family bible was proved to have been sold to the prisoner a few months before by a dealer in old books; and Tom Provis received the reward of his audacity and villany, by being sentenced to twenty years' transportation.

The Swinfen case was not so agreeable in its results for the practised advocate. It is doubtful, indeed, whether anything in Sir F. Thesiger's professional career ever gave him so much pain as the compromise he effected in this case. He went down to Stafford on a special retainer, as Mrs. Swinfen's counsel, to defend the sanity of the testator, Mr. Swinfen, under whose will his fair client claimed the estate. On a Saturday in March, 1856, the cause came on for trial. The then Attorney-General (now Lord Chief Justice Cockburn, who last week tried the case of *Kennedy v. Broun et Uxor*), was specially retained on the other side. Sir Frederic was not half satisfied with the result of the first day's trial, and he recommended a compromise. Out of respect to her counsel, as Mrs. Swinfen says, she did not reject on the instant the suggested compromise, by which she was to receive £1,000 a year. But at one o'clock on Sunday, she telegraphed to Sir Frederic a stern refusal. Early on Monday morning, however, the attorney for Mrs. Swinfen, who had instructed Sir F. Thesiger, came to him and said that circumstances had come to his knowledge which rendered it extremely desirable that the cause should be settled out of court. When the case came on for argument in the Court of Common Pleas in December, the same year, an attempt was made to show the attorney's reason for making this statement, namely, that he had ascertained Sir A. Cockburn was going to prove in cross-examination that he, the attorney, had expressed an opinion unfavourable to the sanity of the testator, Mr. Swinfen. Mr. Whateley, who defended Sir F. Thesiger, suggested this in the guise of a supposititious case, but he was stopped by the Court, and told not to travel out of the affidavit. Whatever the motive, this communication was made to Sir F. Thesiger, who lost no time in seeing the Attorney-General, and in agreeing to the well-known compromise, by which £1,000 a year was settled on Mrs. Swinfen in exchange for the estate. That lady's attorney was in court, asked for costs as between attorney and client, which has been interpreted to mean costs in the conscience of the attorney, then stipulated for £2,000, was snubbed by the Attorney-General, and thrown over by Sir Frederic, who contented himself with asking for £1,500. The attorney, finally, obtained Sir Alexander's consent to £1,250. While these negotiations were going on, the enemy began to manifest an alarming indifference to the compromise, and a desire to fight the case through. As the knot loosened on one side it was tightened on the other. Sir Frederic conceiving, after the hint that he had received from the attorney, that he had no alternative but to make the best terms he could for his client, took the matter out of his solicitor's hands, refused to wait for Mrs. Swinfen, who was expected to arrive every moment, and signed the agreement, after promising to defend the attorney against his fair client. That gentleman seems to have had dreadful misgivings as to the view which the lady would take of the compromise effected in her absence, and his fears were abundantly justified on her arrival. He knew Patience Swinfen better than her counsel.

A dark-haired, bright-eyed, still handsome woman, whose features were marked by great firmness and self-possession, now appears on the scene. She had just arrived in Stafford by the train from her country-house, and was making her way to the Nisi-Prus Court. She was leaning upon the arm of a grey-haired and grey-bearded gentleman, Sir Henry Durrant, who, as a friend and relative, was doubly entitled to advise and counsel her. She was thinking, we may be sure, of anything but a compromise. Had she not herself telegraphed to Sir Frederic, at one o'clock on the previous (Sunday) afternoon, the decisive words, "The offer is rejected?" What if Sir Frederic had shrugged his shoulders and voted his client a wilful lady, who did not know when she was well advised? Of the attorney's misgivings, his visit to Sir F. Thesiger, and his suggestion that the cause should be settled out of court, Mrs. Swinfen was in blissful ignorance. She had come to Stafford to hear a jury return a verdict in her favour, and thereupon to receive the congratulations of her friends on obtaining a legal recognition to her title to an estate worth £50,000 or £60,000, bequeathed to her by her relative, Mr. Swinfen.

In this frame of mind, the fair and smiling client encountered her distinguished advocate, just as he was leaving the court. He, too, we may take it for granted, was not less satisfied with himself. His day's work was over: he was ready for another special retainer, and a fee of three hundred guineas; and Stafford could hardly hold him until the next train started for town. "I have done the best I can for you!" exclaimed Sir Frederic; "You are to have £1,000 a year!" The lady was speechless with astonishment. Sir H. Durrant asked by whose authority he had effected such a compromise. Commend us to a great *nisi prius* lawyer for presence of mind!—"By yours!" promptly replied Sir Frederic. We heard a man say he would give £1,000 for the coolness and eagle-like swiftness necessary for this reply. Sir Henry remembered that he had all along opposed the compromise, and that if he had not drawn up the telegram of the previous afternoon, he had at least advised and despatched it. In his surprise he used language which the stern moralist had better not attempt to defend. He exclaimed, "The deuce you did!" and the lady, who might on another occasion have given a slight start, or even half withdrawn her arm from his, at something which would have seemed to approach on the debatable ground of profane language, did not heed the remark. Mr. Kennedy, who afterwards related the conversation in open court, declared with great good taste, that Sir F. Thesiger, after this, "sneaked away." The more charitable construction is, that he dreaded a scene. Mrs. Swinfen's friends afterwards wished that she had proclaimed to the Attorney-General and to all the world, at the moment, that she had

been betrayed, and that she would not be held to the agreement. She suffered, on the contrary, a considerable period to elapse before announcing her intention to contest the compromise. Another point in dispute was also greatly to be regretted: Mrs. Swinfen and Sir H. Durrant both made affidavit that Sir F. Thesiger told them on Saturday evening, that an intimation had reached him from high quarters, that the case was likely to go against her. She and Sir Henry also swore that they both understood this allusion to mean that the judge who had heard the case (Mr. Justice Cresswell) was the personage referred to. Sir F. Thesiger made an affidavit denying that he made such a statement; yet Mr. Kennedy, with a not too amiable glance at Mr. Justice Cresswell, when the case was before the Common Pleas, remarked, with significant stress, that Sir Frederic did not say, "I had received no such intimation from Mr. Justice Cresswell." Whether Sir Frederic was called upon to make that statement, is a matter upon which the reader may form his own opinion.

The scene is now shifted to the Court of Common Pleas, where three silk gowns—Whately, Keating, and Edwin James—defended Sir F. Thesiger against two juniors on the back benches—Mr. Kennedy and Mr. Cole. Mrs. Swinfen occupied a seat behind her counsel, who certainly indulged in strong vituperation rather resembling, if the truth be told, the railing of an angry woman than the language of a barrister dealing with the acts and motives of one of the greatest ornaments of his profession. Charges of falsehood, of foul and criminal practices, of behaving impudently and unlike a gentleman, of making an improper and scandalous use of the judge's name in order to intimidate his own client, were lavished upon Sir F. Thesiger, and mixed up with suggestions of perjury and conspiracy that were not calculated to prejudice the learned judges in favour of the cause thus advocated. Still the Court were bound to hold the scales even, whatever they might think of Mr. Kennedy's savage diatribes. Mrs. Swinfen came to complain that she had been compelled to exchange a life interest in an estate worth £50,000, for an annuity of £1,000. Up to a certain point her opposition to the compromise effected in her name had been prompt and consistent. And the question was whether she could, without committing a contempt of court, repudiate the agreement effected in her absence, and against her express instructions. It seemed agreed on all hands that a client, if present in court, can always interpose and take his brief out of his counsel's hands. But Mrs. Swinfen was not in the Stafford Court House at the critical moment, and the Court was now asked to decide whether she was or was not bound in law by the acts of Sir F. Thesiger and her attorney.

Judgment was deferred, and the legal profession awaited the decision of the Court with great anxiety. When judgment was given it was found that "stuff" had gained the victory over "silk." Mr. Justice Cresswell had an opinion one way and Mr. Justice Crowder another. Mr. Justice Williams agreed with the first-named judge in principle—to wit, that the rule of Court could and ought to be enforced by attachment, but he did not like to shut the lady out from the opportunity of obtaining the decision of a higher tribunal. Mr. Justice Crowder's opinion, therefore, carried the day in favour of the lady. The learned judge, however, in the judgment he delivered, recognised the difficult circumstances in which Sir F. Thesiger was placed on the morning of the trial at Stafford; and both this learned judge and Mr. Justice Cresswell administered a terrible rebuke to Mr. Kennedy for his absurd and unnecessary vituperation of Sir F. Thesiger. For anything Sir Frederic knew, the circumstances which Mrs. Swinfen's attorney told him had come to his knowledge, rendering an arrangement necessary, were also known to Mrs. Swinfen; and if he had delayed to act on this recommendation and had gone to trial, what, it was well asked, would have been said of him if the verdict had gone against the lady, and if she had lost the estate and the annuity too?

The original cause again went to trial, and the validity of the will being established, Mrs. Swinfen gained the estate which has, alas! brought her so little happiness. Mrs. Swinfen afterwards brought an action against Sir F. Thesiger, when Chief Baron Pollock directed the jury to find a verdict for the defendant. Mr. Kennedy obtained a rule for a new trial. The case was then ably argued before the Court of Exchequer. No decision precisely in point could be found, although a variety of authorities, both from our own law and that of other countries, were referred to. The Court took time to consider, and an elaborate judgment was given by the Lord Chief Baron discharging the rule. The law was then declared to be, that counsel has complete authority over the suit, the mode of conducting it, and all that is incident to it. The Chief Baron and the late Mr. Baron Watson went farther, holding that if a barrister acts with perfect good faith, and with a view to the interest of his client, he is not responsible for any mistake, or indiscretion, or error of judgment of any sort. A question of immense importance affecting the relation between counsel and their clients was thus decided, which will keep the name of Lord Chelmsford fresh in the law-books for many generations.

We have thought it advisable to keep the narrative of Lord Chelmsford's legal career distinct from his Parliamentary history. But that career is far from creditable. As Attorney-General and Lord Chancellor he has had ample opportunities of distinguishing himself both as a political and legal reformer. But in neither capacity has he achieved any real success. His motto has been obstruction; and, indeed, he is about the only politician of mark who, having joined with the late Sir Robert Peel in repealing the Corn Laws, which he had always opposed, was afterwards re-converted to Protection in order to take office under Lord Derby.

Reviews of Books.

LIFE OF THE RIGHT HON. WILLIAM PITT.*

[SECOND NOTICE.]

OF Pitt's genius as a Peace Minister there can be no doubt. On many points he was far in advance of his age. His scheme for the pacification of Ireland has been already mentioned. This, did it stand alone, would fairly entitle him to the reputation of far-sighted and comprehensive statesmanship. But it is only one among his many titles to fame. As a financier his

* Life of the Right Hon. William Pitt. By Earl Stanhope. Vols. III. and IV. Messrs. Albemarle-street.

mistake was the establishment of the Sinking Fund. He understood the doctrines of free trade far more thoroughly than any of the Whig leaders of the day. He concluded, against the opposition both of Fox and Burke, a commercial treaty with France, of which the statesmen of our time have produced but a feeble copy. He proposed a liberal Reform Bill in 1785, and induced the King to recommend it in a speech from the throne. It is understood that he urged upon his Majesty the abolition of the Test Act. He aided Fox in securing the liberty of the press. He heartily supported the efforts of Wilberforce for the abolition of the slave-trade against many of his warmest adherents. True, some of these measures were never carried out; others were rendered nugatory by the revolution war; but, notwithstanding such untoward results, the author of them must always take rank as a statesman of great talents and of sincere liberality.

His reputation as a War Minister is a very different affair. Looking back now, there can be little doubt that the war with France in 1793 was inevitable. The French, driven to frenzy by foreign interference with their domestic affairs, and inflamed by the wildest political fanaticism, could not be approached with any overtures for peace. But when this fury had passed away, and disorder had been succeeded by a regular government, matters wore a different aspect. We cannot comprehend why the overtures of Bonaparte, in 1800, were contemptuously rejected. We do not see the reply to Fox's reproach: "I think you ought to have given a civil, clear, and explicit answer to the overture, which was fairly and honourably made;" and in this, as in every other difficulty, no assistance is afforded by Lord Stanhope. The truth we suspect to have been that there was a division in the Cabinet—one party insisting on the Restoration of the Bourbons. This seems pretty plain from a memorandum drawn up by Mr. Dundas, in the same year:—

"Some of us," says Mr. Dundas, "think that the only solid hope of peace lies in the restoration of the Bourbons."

"Some, without going so far, think that there should be no peace with a Revolutionary Government, and that the present Government of France is such."

"Some are for negotiating with the present Government of France, but only in conjunction with the Emperor of Germany."

"Some [it is clear that Mr. Dundas includes himself] are for negotiating on our own foundation singly, with a just sense of our dignity and honour, and of the conquests we have made out of Europe."

"Mr. Dundas observes that these differences are not theoretical, but practical, presenting themselves in every discussion either on the prosecution of war or the prospect of peace."

"The statement thus concludes:—

"It is earnestly hoped that Mr. Pitt will take these observations into his most serious consideration before it is too late."

The peace of Amiens, however, set all these differences at rest. The experiment was tried and failed. The rupture of that peace was not less unavoidable than the war with the Directory had been. The arrogance and ambition of the First Consul left England no choice. The views even of Mr. Fox underwent a change. We think, then, that on the question of war or peace Mr. Pitt was right in both his administrations. But there yet remains the question—how was the war, under his auspices, carried on?

As regards the contest with revolutionary France, we cannot but concur with Lord Macaulay's criticism that Pitt, from the outset, mistook its character altogether. If war was inevitable, as we believe it to have been, it was a war such as civilized Europe had never seen before; a war, on our part, against the declared enemies of all law and order; a war to be waged with the fervour of a crusade. This Pitt never realized. He looked upon it as a war to be conducted upon ordinary principles, and to be affected by ordinary considerations. "It was pitiable to hear him, year after year, proving to an admiring audience that the wicked Republic was exhausted, that she could not hold out, that her credit was gone, that her assignats were not worth more than the paper of which they were made; as if credit was necessary to a government of which the principle was rapine; as if Alboin could not turn Italy into a desert till he had negotiated a loan at five per cent.; as if the Exchequer Bills of Attila had been at *par*" (Macaulay's *Biographies*, p. 219). Enthusiasm can only be met by enthusiasm. And an enthusiasm more than sufficient to meet the enthusiasm of the French Jacobins was to be found in the English people, had the Minister but called it forth. Herein lay Pitt's great deficiency as a War Minister, both in his first struggle with the Directory, and afterwards when opposed to Napoleon. He never would rely fully on his own country. He was always looking abroad, and buying allies who deserted us without scruple. The expense of his wars was enormous, but it was expense thrown away. Had a quarter of the sums which he wasted in hiring Austrians and Prussians to fight for their liberties been spent in England, he might easily have created an army as efficient as that which Wellington, a few years later, led from Torres Vedras to Paris. At one time we paid Russia £225,000 as preparation money, and £45,000 monthly, to keep up an army of 45,000 men. We were rewarded by the treaty of Tilsit. Pitt never could be brought to understand that allies who had to be bought were not worth buying; that men who had to be bribed to fight for their own country would never fight well; and that England would never effectually oppose France, until she sent forth her own armies to maintain her cause.

Yet he might have learned this lesson, had he studied the career of his own father. The Great Commoner owed his marvellous success as a War Minister mainly to his employing, without fear or favour, the ablest men he could find; to his use of English troops; and to his own fiery enthusiasm, which reached to every drummer and every shipboy. All these elements of success were wanting to the great commoner's son. The enthusiasm he could not have; for up to the peace of Amiens he was half-hearted about the war. Better had he opposed it like Fox, than to have entered into it hesitatingly and reluctantly. He would not organise a great English army, but wasted our troops, and destroyed our reputation in trifling expeditions. And he took heed that even these expeditions should be led by officers worthy of command. The father was served by Clive and Wolfe; the son committed the lives of English soldiers, and the honour of the English name to the military genius of the Duke of York and the Earl of Chatham. That, in such a choice of commanders, Pitt was greatly to blame, few, we think, will dispute. But why he should have persistently abstained from employing British troops on a large scale, it is not easy to discover. They were not novices. In Lord

Chatham's time, the men who had won Blenheim and Ramillies had passed away, and he might have feared that their place could not be supplied. But no such doubts need have disturbed Pitt; and for this plain reason, that his father's administration had preceded his own. He had at his disposal the very men who had scaled the heights of Quebec with Wolfe; who had stood with Clive as one to fifty on the field of Plassey; who had told the gentlemen of the guard to "fire first" at Fontenoy. And yet, instead of calling on these soldiers and others like them to fight the battles of their country, Pitt squandered that country's money in paying foreigners to give victory to Napoleon. An inability to understand the nature of the enemy to be encountered, and an inability to understand the nature of the resources with which it is possible to encounter him, are two of the gravest faults which can be ascribed to a War Minister. It is impossible to deny that they must both be ascribed to Pitt. If with the blindness which could not discern the soldierly qualities of Englishmen, we contrast the genius which created out of the half-barbarian and wholly disaffected Highlanders one of the finest brigades in the service, we shall estimate not unfairly the capacities of the father and the son as War Ministers.

In short, Pitt's military administration was from first to last a mistake. Never in "our island story," not even in that disastrous conflict which lost us our American colonies, did such discredit come upon the English arms. Nothing in Pitt's hand prospered. The expedition to Belgium, the expedition to Quiberon, the expedition to Holland, all ended alike in failure and disgrace. Even the great coalition was mismanaged. "It will appear," said Lord Sidmouth, before the news of Austerlitz had arrived, "that Government has been both precipitate and remiss." We cannot follow Lord Stanhope's reasoning, when he triumphs over the inconsistency of these accusations. They are perfectly consistent, and, unhappily, they were perfectly true. Government was precipitate in proclaiming the coalition; it was remiss in despatching the British contingent. Ulm had surrendered, Austerlitz had been fought, before the British troops had embarked for Germany. Such remissness on our part must not be forgotten when judging of our allies who made peace for themselves. This was not the first occasion on which England had taken part in similar combinations. Marlborough had to co-operate with the Dutch and the Imperial armies; William III. spent his life in banding together against France the powers of Europe. Marlborough and William had to complain often and bitterly of the sluggishness of their allies, but never before could those allies complain justly of the remissness of England. So strongly was this felt throughout the country, that had Pitt met Parliament after this campaign, his power would have been in great danger. Even Lord Stanhope admits that his popularity had sensibly declined.

The greatest triumphs of the English navy were certainly achieved under Pitt's administration. But with these the Premier had nothing to do; so far as they can be ascribed to any cause beyond the genius of our naval commanders, they are to be ascribed to the administrative abilities of Lord Spencer. Indeed, by a curious fatality, Pitt's tenure of power was marked by the most threatening calamity that ever menaced England from the sea—the great mutiny of the *Nore*. But for this he can scarcely be held responsible. He is more directly to blame for having kept his brother, the Earl of Chatham, at the head of the Admiralty—perhaps the most important place next to his own in the Ministry—until all the merchants in the kingdom were crying out against the danger to which our trade was exposed by his inactivity and incapacity.

Lord Stanhope has told us little or nothing of Pitt's internal administration after the outbreak of the war. This is not a matter which any panegyrist of the Minister can afford to overlook. The charge against Pitt is too well known and too serious to be disregarded. That charge is, that while he was slack against the enemies of England abroad, he was energetic, even to cruelty, against a few discontented murmurers at home. Certain it is that England has been seldom governed with such severity. All expressions of opinions adverse to the Ministerial policy were sternly put down. Alien Acts were passed, and were enforced. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended. In Scotland, beyond all question, this system was carried the length of cruelty. Laws, which in England would have created a revolution, were raked up from obscurity by a harsh administration, and put in force by brutal judges after a fashion which no one can now be found to defend. And if all this alarm was vain; if, as we verily believe, the real malcontents were contemptible in numbers, position, and intelligence; if the nation was almost as unanimous against France, as France was against England; then a grave responsibility must attach to the Minister who counselled such measures. We do not pretend to settle the question. But we do say that it deserved the most thorough investigation at the hands of the man who claims to have written the Minister's life.

In some points a parallel may be drawn between Pitt and his father. Both were haughty towards their colleagues, and in Parliament often so as to inflict pain; both were humble almost to servility in the closet. Both, on great occasions, sacrificed their own wishes to the entreaties of the monarch—Lord Chatham when he deserted Lord Rockingham, Pitt when he gave up Fox; and both, in thus acting, gratified their king at the expense of their country, and at the expense of their own reputations. Nor were the general aspects of their respective careers dissimilar. Both achieved great success, and attained unbounded popularity during their early periods of office; both fell into grave blunders, and saw that popularity waning during the latter days of their power. Pitt, indeed, was taken away while his fame was yet high; his father, less fortunate, survived to find himself alone, hated by the court, and at variance with every section of the Opposition. But the Pitt of 1806 was hardly more like the Pitt of 1788, than the Lord Chatham of 1770 was like the Great Commoner of 1759. And it is to be remarked that the father and the son gained and lost their fame in exactly opposite ways. The father gained his as a Minister in war, and lost it as a Minister in peace; the son gained his as a Minister in peace, and lost it as a Minister in war. It is a strange instance of a contrast and a parallel together.

Pitt's private character—his pride, his integrity, his admirable purity of life,—has been frequently discussed. So, too, has his surprising neglect of letters and the arts, which even Lord Stanhope cannot but regret. On these topics everything worth saying has often been said already.

Of Lord Stanhope's own work an unfavourable estimate has been formerly

expressed in this journal. We are sorry to say that his lordship's third and fourth volumes afford no good ground for modifying that estimate. The whole book is unworthy of Lord Stanhope, and still more unworthy of the great man whose life it professes to record.

ALTON LOCKE'S SECOND THOUGHTS.*

THAT a popular novelist should think it necessary to re-write a considerable portion of one of his most distinctive works—and that he should do so emphatically on the ground that his present impressions are different from those he formed originally—is, if not an important, at all events a remarkable circumstance. It happens not unfrequently that novelists change their views on men and things. The author of "Coningsby" looks with very different eyes on political matters now, and the social philosophy of "Pelham" is not generally supposed to be that which the writer of "The Caxtons" upholds. But neither the one nor the other of these novelists cares to produce revised copies of his youthful efforts, and to set forth in an elaborate preface the apology for the old ideas and the explanation of the new. The wild theories, the distorted views, are things of the past; they serve as illustrations of their author's character; they show what it was possible for a clever man to think at the time. *Constance Planco*, their feelings were warm; and the pen writes, as the mouth speaks, out of the abundance of the heart. Now, with the change of times has come change of opinions and principles; and surely in the realms of fiction, if nowhere else, by-gones may be allowed to be by-gones. Versatility, that inestimable quality of which youth has almost the monopoly, is not far removed from rashness; but it is a rashness which few wise men will bring as a serious charge against those who have won, in course of years, the still more precious treasure of experience.

Professor Kingsley, however, is of opinion that the picture of Cambridge which appeared in the first edition of "Alton Locke," published in 1849, is calculated to afford the public a mistaken idea of what Cambridge is at present. It would have been reasonable to suppose that that portion of the public which is content to form its judgment on a university from the pages of a novel, would at all events be aware that the scenes which it describes are not laid within the last few years. Whether the picture, however, was true or not, it will be a serious matter if novelists are to think it necessary always to keep each fresh edition of their works correctly accommodated to the latest impressions of the writer. The pleasant illusion of the reality of the story will entirely disappear. A fiction is at best something unstable and treacherous; but a hypothetical and provisional fiction is really intolerable. If "Alton Locke's" life is re-written much more, we shall begin to have doubts whether he ever was a tailor and a Chartist at all. The only satisfaction is, that the change is for the better. If a closer acquaintance with the scene of his lectures produces a still more rose-coloured impression in the mind of the Professor, we shall expect to find the hero, in an edition of ten years hence, received by a deputation of senior fellows and university stroke-oars, who, after escorting him with scrupulous politeness over the public library, will take him down to the races in a barge of state, indulging in no conversation but the soundest political economy, and with fastidious delicacy abandoning the use of coats for fear of hurting the feelings of the tailor. It is interesting to conjecture how Mr. Kingsley's other novels will be amended, as fresh light gradually bursts in upon his mind. What will be the gloomy fate of Sir Amys and Salvation Yeo when, in the preface to a new edition of "Westward Ho!" the author modestly declares that further knowledge and wider charity have modified the strong objections which he used once to entertain towards Jesuits and Spaniards? The Alexandrian mob of "Hypatia" offers a fine material for "rehabilitation," and new views on the subject of the game-laws would play sad havoc with the plot of "Yeast." The exact cause of the present alteration, and the nature of the adopted portraiture, will be best explained by the author's own words, in the preface to the last edition:—

"These sketches were drawn from my own recollections of 1838-1842. Whether they were overdrawn is a question between me and men of my own standing. But the book was published in 1849, and I am assured by men in whom I have the most thorough confidence, that my sketches had by then at least become exaggerated, and therefore, as a whole, untrue. . . . But even if, as early as 1849, I had not been told that I must do so, I should have done so of my own accord, after the experience of 1861. I have received at Cambridge a courtesy and kindness from my elders, a cordial welcome from my co-equals, and an earnest attention from the undergraduates with whom I have come in contact, which would bind me in honour to say nothing publicly against my university, even if I had ought to say. But I have nought. I see at Cambridge nothing which does not gain my respect for her present state and hope for her future. Increased sympathy between the old and young, increased intercourse between the teacher and the taught, increased freedom and charity of thought, and a steady purpose of internal self-reform and progress seem to me already bearing good fruit, by making the young men regard their university with content and respect. And among the young men themselves, the sight of their increased earnestness and high-mindedness, increased sobriety and temperance, combined with a manliness not inferior to that of the stalwart lads of twenty years ago. . . ."

This is, indeed, making things pleasant; the force of honey can no further go. One cannot but envy the young men who have suddenly wakened up and found themselves virtuous. There are, however, other satisfactory points to remark. "Another change I must notice . . . which is most wholesome and most hopeful. I mean their altered tone in speaking of and to the labouring classes." Thirty years ago, adds the professor, the young men of the labouring classes were "the cads" "the snobs"; now, on the other hand, they are looked upon with a "simple cordiality," their volunteer corps is officered by gentlemen, and the best men of the university teach at the Working Men's College. The remainder of the preface is devoted to the general question of the relation between rich and poor, trades unions, democracy, and reform bills. We mean no sneer when we say that it is written in the tone which would be expected from Mr. Kingsley. In the novel itself the new views are certainly carried out in a most uncompromising way. Alton Locke enters as before the rooms of his cousin just as a party of men are on the point of

starting for a boat-race. If the crew of the second boat on the river were, twenty years ago, in the habit of indulging in cigars immediately before the afternoon's pull, we may safely affirm that the present generation has made a decided advance in its views on the important subject of training. The conversation, however, in the novel is different from what it was by the omission of bad language; and a similar change is made in the description of the river's bank. The race is unaltered, we are happy to say; but the mishap which befalls the hero is entirely remodelled. He is not now knocked down by a brutal horseman, but accidentally pushed into the water by a big lord, who abuses him for clumsiness, but immediately apologises, on "seeing that he is not a gowmsman." This speech is cleverly made to serve as the occasion for Alton Locke's wounded feelings, which are still further hurt by the offer of half-a-crown. In the novel of 1849, the cousin of the hero, the typical undergraduate, abuses the dons, laughs at drunkenness, and draws a frightful picture of the relation between governors and governed. Then supper comes, a scene of mad intoxication, and Alton escapes to the street, where St. Mary's "watches with a steadfast silence the scenes of frivolity and sin, Pharisaism, formalism, hypocrisy, and idleness below." Now, in 1862, the same cousin is gentlemanly, though cynical; advises his friend to come up as a sizar, and develops a vein of Tractarianism which Professor Kingsley cannot prevent himself from representing as a half-conscious hypocrisy. The supper is omitted, and the tower of the University Church looks down on nothing particular. The deliberate invective against the whole system is now put into the hero's mouth, as representing his own private sentiments alone, and the scene is omitted in which Alton is mistaken for a bailiff and repulsed from Lord Lynedale's door. Lastly, these parting remarks on the manners and customs of the men are so strangely altered, that the contrast is really amusing. We exhibit the old and the new in parallel columns:—

1842.
"I saw a good deal more of the young men that week. I cannot say that my recollections of them are pleasant."

"A few were very bigoted Tractarians . . . and the rest, narrow, bitter, flippant, and unearnest."

"But the great majority were even of a lower stamp . . . The tone which they took about everything, the coarseness, hollowness, Gil Blas selfishness, was what might have been expected."

"I was utterly shocked at the contempt and unbelief with which they seemed to regard everything beyond mere animal enjoyment."

1862.
"I saw little of the university men; less than I might have done; less, perhaps, than I ought to have done."

"The majority were rather agreeable men than severe students."

"Still more did I envy them when I found that many of them combined, as my cousin did, this physical exercise with really hard mental work."

"Their gay, confident carriage, which proceeds from physical health and strength, and which I mistook for the swagger of insolence."

When Mr. Kingsley was appointed to the chair of Modern History at Cambridge, there were many different opinions entertained as to the propriety of the appointment. There were those who urged that the gentleman selected for that office ought to be one who has shown some special acquaintance with the subject upon which he is to deliver lectures. How far Mr. Kingsley's published works could be fairly received as a substitute for such proof of fitness, we need not at present inquire; and there is no doubt that his lectures are now interesting and popular. But no one could hesitate to receive the new professor as adding a valuable element to the educational staff of Cambridge. With what hearty eagerness he enters into all that is most active in word and thought, the readers of his books may imagine; and how thoroughly he can appreciate the opposite sides of young men's character, may be judged from the specimens contrasted above. But for an historian it is indispensable that he should be able to form general views with a sound judgment, and that this power never belonged to Professor Kingsley the above contrasted descriptions are quite sufficient to prove. No reasonable person will ever seriously believe that the first of the pictures is not too harsh, and the second too lenient. Certainly none will conceive, in the wildest moment of imagination, that a period of twenty years has produced the alteration from the one to the other. In this world, we have been accustomed to believe, the wheat and the tares grow together till the judgment; with Professor Kingsley the tares save the trouble of a judgment by suddenly turning themselves into wheat. Both types of young men are to be found now as they were to be found then; and the average is now, as it was then, between the two extremes. The real difference is, that the author saw then with the eyes of an undergraduate, whose opportunities of forming a correct judgment were by no means more than usually great; and he sees now with those of a professor who associates habitually with the best and most thoughtful men of the generation before him. We speak from a not inconsiderable acquaintance with the undergraduates of the present day, as well as with their teachers and governors; and while we believe that the tone of the university, its habits and pursuits, is improving with the progress of civilization and the increased sense of duty of those in authority, we believe no less strongly that the improvement is slow and gradual, not sudden and complete. We should have been satisfied if the author of "Alton Locke" had erased entirely the visit to Cambridge, as the French translator of "Vanity Fair" is said to have erased all mention of the battle of Waterloo: the description was harmless, simply because no one ever believed that it was faithful. But it cannot be otherwise than injurious that a picture of university life should be given seriously and authoritatively to the world which represents it as uniformly respectable and mostly wise. It was no doubt a caricature to describe a drunken supper-party as if no supper-parties were sober; but does the professor suppose that there are no similar revels now? Is drunkenness altogether out of fashion? Is idleness universally thought disgraceful? Is decency uniformly enforced? We know, quite as well as Mr. Kingsley, what delicacy, virtue, industry, earnestness can exist among men at college; how reverence can be associated with gaiety, temperance with pleasure; self-control with perfect freedom, not only in individuals but in whole circles of associates, workers and non-workers, boating-men and landmen, alike. But there are surely now, as ever, "sets" in which chastity is as little reputable as industry; there are festivities when to be sober is to be unique; there are minds, by the hundred, to which the idea of self-

* Alton Locke, Tailor and Poet: an Autobiography. By Rev. Charles Kingsley, Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. New edition, with a new Preface. Cambridge: Macmillan. 1862.

culture has never for an instant presented itself. We cannot but feel that if Mr. Kingsley, instead of dwelling on the virtues of the men he meets, and the obsolete character of the expression "cad," would set himself to solve the problem which Mr. Hughes fruitlessly proposed at the outset of his last novel, he would be attempting a more useful task. "How in the world, thought Sanders, are youngsters, with unlimited credit, plenty of ready money, and fast tastes, to be kept from making fools and blackguards of themselves up here?" So writes the author of "Tom Brown at Oxford." He states the question so extremely well, that it is the greater pity that he makes no effort at all to propose its solution in his novel.

Two causes, it appears to us, have combined to produce a gradual improvement in the tone of university life, and to suggest favourable hopes for the future. One is to be found in the improved system of study. Every change for the better in the *curriculum* is a pure and unqualified gain. The classical tripos by itself has probably caused more sobriety and self-restraint in the last forty years than all the university sermons. Each wiser arrangement for examinations, lectures, and rewards, is a harbinger of progress which those only will undervalue who agree with the Dean of Carlisle that the unassisted human intellect has a directly "deteriorating tendency." And for the other chief cause of past and future progress, we must look to the wider interests and deeper sense of responsibility which the authorities of the university have gradually been led to adopt; forces of which it is no disparagement to say that their application is indirect and their action slow. At the same time it must be remembered that personal influence in the direction of reform will frequently have the best chance of success where the community is largest, and consequently freest in action. As a matter of fact, a university has fewer social traditions than would be supposed,—fewer, probably, than a school, and it is hence more open to innovation. It is recruited from all classes and all countries; its highest prizes are open to the ambition of all; it is almost the only community which could afford, if it chose, to be thoroughly tolerant. Every type of English mind rallies round it, and helps to shape the rest. The student who fairly lays himself open to the best influences of the place has an opportunity of gaining a more varied culture than he can ever find again. The virtues of the rich mould, and are moulded by, the virtues of the poor; the public opinion of the university takes its shape from the strongest minds, which at the same time it corrects and restrains. Each year the schools send up to it their distinctive types of character, to be toned down and fashioned by the rest,—Rugby its youthful thoroughness, Harrow its graceful geniality, Eton its manliness of heart or mind. As long as the place remains open to the advancing civilization and widening ideas of the age—as long as those who rule and teach determine to do something more than draw their dividends and preserve their "magnificent repose," we have no fear that Cambridge will fall behind the rest of the world in the improvement of its manners or its thought. But that the last twenty years have made such a difference as Professor Kingsley wishes us to think, that they have changed the whole tone of the place from one of reckless dissipation to one of thoughtful earnestness and sobriety, is a theory which it would be unfair on former days to accept, and hardly candid towards the present to admit.

ORGANIZATION IN DAILY LIFE.*

THE author of "Friends in Council" is almost without a rival in the particular line of literature which he has adopted as his own. The various writers who have formed their style upon his, have for the most part but succeeded in catching his mannerisms without his inspiration, and in reproducing the framework of his essays, stripped of the refined sentiment and half-melancholy playfulness which is their principal charm. The failure of his imitators is the best test of his success: his popularity is the natural reward of very easy thoughts, expressed in graceful, humorous, and polished language. He writes like a well-read scholar, with all the tastes and susceptibilities which the highest forms of education confer, and whose daily employments supply him unfailingly with material for gentle intellectual exertion. He is a master of the arts of easy thinking and easy writing, and he is accordingly very welcome to a generation which loves to be amused and interested without an effort on its part, and whose favourites are rather ingenious than profound. He is familiar with every artifice by which a discussion may be brought smoothly to a close, and he handles controversial topics with such nimble elegance as to shock the sentiments of neither party to the quarrel. His attitude is that of one who, without aspiring to be original, is constantly carrying his speculations a step further than the commonplace superficialities of ordinary society. He has no great announcement to make—no new line of thought to follow out—no peculiar principle to insist upon; but he abounds in sensible and witty remarks, which imply a thoughtful tone of mind, a liberal candour, much information, and a keen sympathy with everything high-minded and generous.

The present essay presents all the writer's characteristics in a stronger light than usual. It is very nicely written, very slight, contains several excellent stories, and seems to play round the subject of discussion rather than to grapple with it. Its manner is ostentatiously indolent: indeed, in this respect the author almost transcends the limits which common respect for himself and his readers would seem to prescribe. A French writer used to be accused of appearing always to have addressed himself to the task of composition *en robe de chambre*. The present essay is similarly suggestive of an easy chair, a comfortable fire, and soft slippers. It seems to have been written not only like one of the author's former works "in the intervals of business," but in moments especially consecrated to mental repose. Several of the tricks by which laziness is wont to endeavour to shield itself, are practised in the most barefaced manner, and on the largest scale. For instance, the essay was, we are informed, written some time ago, and the author acknowledges that "he may have uttered sentiments and opinions which the events that have since occurred would modify. He thinks it better, however, not to attempt any such modification." We think, on the contrary, that a writer is bound to give his readers the benefit of his latest experience; and if the recent behaviour of France, or the events of the American contest, have thrown any fresh light upon the subject of "organization," it is a great pity that an essay on that subject should avowedly

ignore them. Again, the plan of making half the volume consist of a rambling conversation in a railway carriage is merely an artifice for avoiding any accurate, distinct, or thorough discussion. It justifies a congeries of careless suggestions. Nothing can be too slight or obvious, no argument can be too weak, no joke too bad, to find admission by this contrivance. If the people talk stupidly, stupidity is the main characteristic of ordinary conversation, and their remarks, if not philosophically important, are at any rate dramatically correct. Then it is always possible, and indeed appropriate, to break off the dialogue, whenever the writer has had enough of it, by arriving at the station, or going into a tunnel, or allowing one of the passengers to produce a packet of sandwiches or a crying baby. On the present occasion the participants in the discussion are a great deal too conventional and familiar to be at all interesting, or to allow us to invest them with the least degree of personality. They are mere stalking-horses for the author's conflicting sentiments and moods, and he thus gets an opportunity of "trotting out" each one, without any reference to its harmony with, and subordination to, the rest of the party. The writer had taken his place for the North of England when his companions enter. First, there was "a middle-aged man with a worn anxious look, carelessly dressed, partially bald, and very weary-looking." This, of course, is the statesman; the author remembered having been before him on a deputation, and suggests that he was possibly an Under Secretary of State. Then there are two lawyers, one "a jovial-looking, rubicund, imperative man, who is a leading member of his circuit;" the other, "a very refined young man, with long sharp nose and a subtle expression of countenance, who evidently delighted in nice points of difference, and who seemed to think that he neglected his duty if he allowed any statement to pass unquestioned." This is the ideal "Junior." Next follows a lady, whose part is to intersperse the conversation with common-places, and to receive some not very elegant banter from the rubicund barrister; and a sick boy, who is appealed to for quotations, and appropriately introduces the subject of "hare and hounds." Nobody came to see the lawyers off, but troops of friends watched the departure of the lady and her infirm companion. Then the pale junior having pulled the essay out of his pocket, observed that "there are lots of things to be questioned in it, I think," and requests the statesman "to skim it over." "Skim it over!" the author said to himself, "and this is the way that even the intelligent part of the public—men with *nous* like that—talk of productions which have cost us poor devils nights and days of anxious thought." However the statesman complies, and a very pleasant discursive conversation lasts till the end of the journey. When the other actors have vanished, the author lingers on the scene and goodnaturedly abuses the young lawyer. He is, he says, "a pestilent fellow for dividing and defining: he will find out a great many faults in the essay when it is published, and will show them up in some review or other. And there will be a great deal of justice in what he says. However, they may criticize as they like, they will not persuade me that we could not organize a great deal more skilfully than we are in the habit of doing, and that organization is not one of the most remunerative products of the human mind."

One of the subtle junior's remarks was, that where the word "organization" is used, the word "plan" would often have done as well. That the plans of life are not near as clever or as efficient as they might be is the burthen of the author's complaint. There is, he tells us, somewhere in China an inn called the "Three Perfections," where travellers on horse or camel are accommodated, and "all sorts of business negotiated with unfailing success." The young nations of the West are far, it must be confessed, from any such desirable consummation. Life is full of failures, and most of these failures, the author thinks, are attributable to our own clumsiness and want of foresight. Railroads, houses, schools, governments, schemes of policy, systems of defence, are none of them as good as they might be if some really powerful mind could be devoted from the outset to their organization.

But there are reasons enough for the prevalence of mismanagement. In the first place, a man really capable of organizing is very difficult to find. Many powers, not usually found in each other's company, must be combined in him. "Ardour, forethought, and imagination are among the first qualities. And as there is so much that is complicated, disastrous, and inopportune in human affairs, it is pre-eminently necessary that a man to organize skilfully should be very apprehensive." He must not expect things always to go well, or indeed to go at all, without a great deal of troublesome compulsion. Then he should have "an unwearied interest in details, and a power of massing them together, and of marshalling them as a general does his battalions." Genius, it has been said, consists in "an immense capacity for taking trouble." The author would like to define it as "an immense capacity for taking interest." Thus a good systematizer should have tact and a knowledge of the world, in order to know how capricious its movements are, and how little precision is to be looked for in any calculations respecting it. If all these qualities are essential to the organizer, it is natural enough that first-rate organization should be comparatively rare. But there are other difficulties arising from the nature of the circumstances to which organization has to be applied: one is, that the ground is hardly ever clear; and schemes of action are generally designed, not so much that new machinery may work perfectly well, as that its machinery may not come to an absolute break-down. Here we dispose at once of the whole race of pedants, theorists, and constitution-mongers, of whom the Abbé Siéyes is the standing type. Another cause of failure which the author mentions is, that the end proposed is seldom exactly known and understood by those who organize the means for its attainment. Politics consist necessarily very much in extemporizing expedients for some immediate difficulty: instant action is often so necessary that far-sighted calculation is out of the question. "Oh, that will do for the beginning," men say; "we can alter afterwards." But they do not alter afterwards; and the organization grinds on—assumes a powerful name—becomes a great system almost before you are aware, and it is very difficult to make the thing ungrind.

Public life, and the machinery of Government, are evidently the subjects which interest the author most, and from which most of his instances are borrowed. Parliament affords him many examples of bad organization, and the caprices of legislation remind him of the fate of a missionary, who prospered very much among his black disciples till he arrived at the doctrine of original sin. The announcement of this unflattering truth was construed

* "Organization in Daily Life." An Essay. Parker, Son, & Bourn. 1862.

as a personal affront by the whole tribe; a war festival was proclaimed, weapons produced, and all the savages danced round the missionary with threatening gestures, exclaiming, "Black man, is he a bad man? black man a bad man!" The fate of the missionary is uncertain, and the author thinks that a minister in parliament is equally liable to be misconceived and misrepresented, and the fortune of his measures oftentimes equally a matter of chance. Another excellent story exhibits the intolerance of human nature, and the strong tendency of most men to make their own tastes a law for their neighbours. Jones is a gentleman eating a beef-steak at a coffee-house; L. is a philanthropist possessed by the demon of interference. Jones begins his dinner, L. ceases a perusal of the *Times*, and offers his neighbour the mustard, which is declined.

L.—"Mustard, sir?"

JONES.—"Thank you," (but does not take it).

L., looking baffled and cross, reads on a little.—"You will take mustard, sir?"

JONES.—"No thank you, I don't."

L. (after more impatient reading, and glancing round his paper to peep at Jones).—"Most people take mustard, sir, with beef-steak."

JONES.—"I seldom or never do."

L. attempts to get interested in a railway accident, and mutters "Three lives lost—the stoker escaped by a miracle—no blame can be attached to any of the officers of the company." L. continues to look round his paper over and over again at Jones. At last he angrily exclaims, "It is a most extraordinary thing, sir, not to eat mustard with beef-steak! I never did such a thing in my life!"

JONES (calmly).—"Possibly not."

L. turns to his paper and attempts again to read, but manifests a state of strong excitement. At last he can stand it no longer; he throws down the *Times*, and taking up the mustard-pot, exclaims, "D— it, sir, you must and shall have mustard!" (and he daubs Jones's plate over with it).

Everybody, as the author says, is more or less disposed to interfere with his neighbour's beef-steak; and social intolerance is but one of the numberless obstacles which stand in the way of every good contrivance. Life is a tangled, confused, and difficult affair; men are very often careless, ignorant, and incapable of foresight. Accordingly we must look for failure: the task is a hard one, the instruments for its completion are feeble, and the wonder seems, not that everything should not be perfectly well done, but that things should, on the whole, get done as tolerably well as they generally are.

MEMOIR OF THE REV. ROBERT STORY.*

THIS is a well-written memoir of a life worthy of a record. Its interest as a biography is derived, not so much from the learning, genius, or virtues of its subject as from the intimate relation in which he stood to more than one person and controversy celebrated in the recent annals of the Scotch Church. It is a pleasant thing also to be introduced, as we are in this little book, to a specimen of the more refined and cultivated portion of the Presbyterian clergy. In England this portion is little known, and the ideas of Sabbatarianism, ultra-Calvinism, and fanatical intolerance are too exclusively associated with the ministers of the Scotch Church, and our notions of the whole are founded upon the impressions derived from the more noisy and overbearing members of the body.

The subject is artistically treated in this book, and, without being fatigued by numerous and uninteresting details, with the usual accessories of diaries and letters, we are, by means of a few well-selected and well-described passages of Mr. Story's life, presented with a vivid picture of a man endowed with high mental cultivation, calm and manly judgment, animated by great warmth of affection and strong sense of duty, and devoting himself with energy and success to his labours in the sphere of work allotted to him. He first appears as the restless and ambitious aspirant for literary distinction, gradually he is brought to the contemplation of the clerical profession as his destiny, and we are not surprised to learn that his individual longings pointed to the English Church. Filial respect over-ruled his personal feelings, he decided upon the Presbyterian ministry, and the next presentation to the comfortable living of Ladykirk was secured to him by the exertions of his patron, Lord Dalhousie. The state of mind in which he entered the ministry is well exhibited in his own description of his first probationary service. This service is a trying business for the probationer, everything depends upon him,—the lessons to be read from the Bible are entirely at his choice, and the prayers must be extemporized or learnt from his own compositions. It is one of those regulations which show us how much the Church of England owes to its inauguration under the guidance of the civil power. The Church of Scotland, originating rather from the mass of the people than from their rulers, exhibits the traces of its origin in every part of its constitution, and presupposes, for the due performance of its ceremonial, the same enthusiastic spirit which animated it at its birth. The English Church, on the other hand, displays in its ceremonies and its constitution the influence of men who were statesmen as well as ecclesiastics; to the organization derived from such founders it owes its permanence and adaptability to circumstances, and what it has lost in occasional warmth and enthusiasm it has more than gained in the cultivation and manliness of its clergy and the decorum and dignity of its services.

Mr. Story thus describes his own *début* :—

"At twelve the little temple was crowded to the door, and as I went in all the people looked at me askance, fearful lest the minutest noise should discompose the virgin oration with which my mind was in great travail. The first object I noticed was the fiery, immense circumference of the Philistine's face who had come home drunk from St. James's fair on the Saturday night, but was resolved to clear away his head-ache by listening to my eloquence. With a firm and unflinching force I read out the Psalm. My prayer—will you believe it?—my first prayer was, in the strictest sense of the word, extempore; for a time I lost myself, and my head began to grow dizzy, but I gradually returned and terminated with a very good grace. During the first part of the discourse I was solemn, calm, and serious; the people gaped as I described the nature of the angels (the text was 1 Peter i. 12), and before I had finished the introduction, were all attentive to the wonders that were to follow. I proceeded without stopping, some-

times, however, wandering from my notes, but always possessing sufficient command over myself to use fit and becoming expressions on my way back. In the last part of the discourse, however, I became animated; my rotund sentences flowed delightfully; I had towards the conclusion some awful imagery, which produced a deep silence; and when I concluded, one universal act of inspiration succeeded to the breathless stillness which hung upon my lips. Not one of you fastidious critics ever dreamed of my becoming a popular preacher; but it seems that I gained the hearts of them all. 'The Philistine' returned home rejoicing in spirit; an old woman from Eccleford parish told as she returned that I was just her heart's desire; and some of the tailors and ditchers were so edified that they are declaring to follow me wherever I go if I but preach in the bounds."

There is little, certainly, in the tone of this letter to indicate that deeply earnest spirit which afterwards pervaded all his ministrations in the Church and parish to which he was ultimately ordained. It needed, however, only active duty to evoke this spirit, and when thus stimulated, his zeal was only the more healthy for having waited the proper season for its manifestation. This opportunity soon presented itself. He was invited to assist the old and incompetent incumbent of the parish of Rosneath, and the following letter to Mr. Story will best describe the state of the scene of his future labours at the time when Mr. Story joined the parish. It describes the Monday banquet following upon the Communion Sunday—the most solemn season recognized by the Scotch Church :—

"Hero of the dark rolling Eye,—The bousing and roaring of last night has been succeeded by a stillness and uneasiness which the temperate and virtuous never know, and among the heathy wilds of Caledonia, where temperance and purity might seem to have fixed their abode, there is to be found one languid pulse, one aching head, one remorse-struck soul. Perhaps you think that I have been in some infamous company, which prudence and honour conspired in exhorting me to shun, and that with the loss of my innocence I have thrown aside also my respectability. Never once imagine it, sir. The bousing-match which I am lamenting was nothing else than the clerical dinner which usually follows the celebration of the Sacrament, and my fellows in iniquity were blameless priests and holy elders, high-minded heritors and Highland chieftains. We drank, and roared, and sang in a style which might have shamed our illustrious meetings at Turnbull's, even when — roared 'Jolly beggars.' We fired our grape-shot (nothing less than loyal port) sometimes three in a minute; we bumped every young lady in the country. I in a style of matchless expression sang 'Swigged it,' and 'A Highland laird my love was born.' About eight in the evening some were sick and others were groaning, some mounted their horses to ride home many miles over the hills, and your humble servant was completely done up."

In this unpromising district, abounding, as was only natural, in drunkenness, smuggling, and illicit distilleries, Mr. Story laboured zealously and successfully. Gradually he suppressed the unlawful practices which he found so prevalent, and when, at the incumbent's death, the living was pressed upon him by the earnest wishes of the parishioners, he abandoned the more lucrative parish of Ladykirk, and devoted the remaining forty years of his life to the uninterrupted discharge of the duties of a faithful and zealous minister.

Besides his life of ministerial usefulness, the memoir relates Mr. Story's connection with three events of considerable public interest in the recent "History of the Scotch Church," and his conduct in all of them displays the same largeness of mind, fearless pursuit of truth, generous hatred of intolerance, and clear and manly judgment, which makes his biography so very interesting and pleasant. One of these was the well-known *Rew* controversy, another the Free Kirk movement, and the third the establishment of the Holy Catholic and Apostolic Church under Mr. Irving. In the first, while disapproving of many of the terms in which Mr. Campbell enunciated his doctrines, he still did not hesitate to recognize the importance and the truth of much that was asserted by that minister, and he steadily attempted to mitigate the storm of persecution under which Mr. Campbell ultimately succumbed. He manifested the same moderate and conciliatory tone in the discussions in the Assembly which preceded the Free Kirk secession. His position was consistent and logical throughout, and, while eager to co-operate in any plan by which the evils of patronage might be diminished, he distinctly pointed out and protested against the excesses into which the reforming party were being carried. It is almost needless to say that the position he occupied was misinterpreted, and his refusal to join in the secession imputed to the lowest and most selfish motives. He became estranged from many old and valued friends, especially Dr. Chalmers, the leader of the secession. The effects of the movement endured till his death, and embittered his declining years. This part of the memoir is written with great care and detail, much pains are taken to demonstrate the really sectarian character of the secession, the unworthy arts with which they attempted to proselytize the laity, and the groundlessness of the claim advanced by them to the title of the Church of Scotland *par excellence*. In controversies of this kind it is not unusual to find both parties quoting on their side the rough and uncultivated utterances of the *vox populi*, and several good sayings, abounding in genuine Scotch humour, are recorded with that object in this portion of our memoir. "Aweel," said an old woman, on hearing the oft-repeated assertion of the schismatics, that they were the corn and their opponents in the Establishment the chaff; "may be sae, but I'm feared ye maun be some of the licht corn of Egypt, for I never heerd tell in my time o' corn that flew awa' and cauf that bided a hint." "Boney on their conscience," exclaimed another, on Mr. Story saying to her that he hoped those who went were obeying that inward monition,—"If ye kent them as weel as I dae ye wadna say muckle about their conscience. Ony way, conscience is an ill guide wi'oot the Scripture; nae doot it was conscience that sent Saul gallopin' awa' to Damascus."

But the most interesting portion of the Memoir concerns Mr. Story's dealings with the Irvingites. We have in them most instructive illustrations of the origin and diffusion of those tales of marvellous spiritual manifestations which are ever showing a tendency to grow up and flourish, and in which it is difficult to say whether the preponderating element be superstition or imposture. Those who recollect the history of Mr. Irving's movement, will readily remember the name of Mary Campbell, in whom were exhibited some of the earliest and most vaunted outpourings of the spiritual gifts of tongues and healing. She soon attained the dignity of canonization in the Holy Apostolic Church, and her saintship is an article of faith to this day. She was the sister of a young woman named Isabella Campbell, who

* Memoir of the Rev. Robert Story, late Minister of Rosneath, Dumbartonshire. By Robert Henry Story, Minister of Rosneath. Macmillan & Co., Cambridge and London.

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had died in her youth of consumption, and a record of whose brief and devout life had been published to the world by Mr. Story. This memoir had brought the Story family into notice, and Mary being clever, imaginative, devout, beautiful, and in delicate health, her shrine was thronged by enthusiastic pilgrims, especially young men preparing for missionary work, in which Mary took great interest. Mr. Irving's peculiar views of the charismata were now exciting much attention, and Mary and her guests, disdaining the ordinary and more secular modes of preparation for the ministry, especially the study of languages, in contemplation of missionary work, spent the time in spiritual communings, and waiting for the sensible outpouring of the Holy Spirit. Meanwhile Mary's poor mother was sadly put to it to provide hospitality and lodging for self-invited guests, in whom she herself felt little interest, and their noisy and unceasing devotions sadly impaired the rest of a dying brother. Mr. Story was moved to expostulation, but his remonstrances were received by both Mary and her guests as the suggestions of Satan, and he himself was warmly rebuked for his want of faith. The divine afflatus was at length felt, and Mary gave utterance to strange sounds, and traced with her pen strange symbols. She herself asserted her belief that these sounds and symbols corresponded to the language of a group of islands in the South Pacific; as far, however, as a general negative can be established, it appears to have been proved that they belonged to no human speech in use upon this earth. However, they were the means of introducing Mary to the notice of the leading members of the Irvingite communion, where, courted and flattered by a fashionable circle, she soon married well, and became a fine lady. But the old spirit had disappeared. There was no longer zeal for missionary work, and the charge of faithlessness to her first professions was met by the astounding evasion that the Gospel must, first of all, be preached to the Roman earth. Again Mr. Story is moved to expostulation, and his feeling, manly letter elicits the following reply from the late Mr. Drummond, the well-known apostle of the Holy Catholic Church:—

"Sir,—Mrs. Caird (Mary Campbell that was), in the absence of her husband, has put into my hands, as her pastor, a letter from you to her, in which you charge her with professing religion from mercenary motives, making a gain of godliness. Partly through Mr. Irving, partly through Lady Olivia Sparrow, and partly from my own knowledge, I can prove the charge to be as false as it is base, and it comes with peculiar bad grace from a man who, notoriously holding the opinions which drove Mr. John Campbell out of the Church of Scotland, has contrived to mask them so as to retain his stipend. I shall give the letter into Mr. Caird's hands on his return, and leave him to deal with it as he thinks fit.—I am, &c., H. Drummond."

Mr. Drummond did give the letter to Mr. Caird, and Mr. Story was assailed by that gentleman with all the vituperation of saintly Billingsgate. Nor did he stop here. Mr. Story was threatened with a law-suit in reference to his management of the surplus proceeds of the memoirs of Isabella, which he had generously and spontaneously devoted to the relief of the destitute Campbell family. All these circumstances were afterwards communicated to Mr. Irving, but they in no wise shook his deep-rooted confidence in the reality of the Spirit's manifestations. No wonder that Mr. Story should write as he subsequently did to Mr. Irving, after alluding to those who were inclined to believe in the truth of the spiritual manifestations, "By most, if not all, who so believe her case is considered the most remarkable and conclusive, and to me, who knew it better than any other human being, it is an unchangeable stumbling-block, which I could get over only at the cost of all the powers of moral and spiritual discernment by which I can know the things of God at all."

ON TRANSLATING HOMER—LAST WORDS.*

This controversy, interesting to all lovers of Homer, and all who care to see sound rules of criticism laid down for English poetry, is now at an end. What practical advice can be derived from it by the person addressed throughout by Mr. Arnold, the man who intends to translate Homer? It may be summarized in a single word—Don't. Mr. Arnold certainly does not give "our old friend the future translator of Homer" this advice, among the many good, and pregnant, and profitable hints and criticisms which he pours forth for him; but it is pretty clear that any sensible man, who is not very much at a loss for the means to employ his time, having read this controversy, will conclude the translation of Homer to be a most unprofitable task.

For, first, who is to read a translation of Homer? Who is your audience? who your judge? "The refined and accomplished scholar," says Mr. Arnold. "But," returns Mr. Newman, "those who can read the original, will never read through any translation;" and he "appeals to the unlearned but educated public as the only tribunal of taste." And granting Mr. Arnold that it is not easy to find a practical test of a good translation, except in the opinion of cultivated scholars, it does not follow that what to them mirrors the original (which, indeed, as Mr. Spedding says, would be always present to them through the translation), would be readable to the unlearned; and to be readable to those who cannot read the original, is surely the main end of a translation. The ideal translator must combine these two requisites.—he must interest the unlearned reader, and he must satisfy the cultivated scholar too. Then, what encouragement is there from former examples? Mr. Newman picked up lately, at a book-stall, a translation of the Iliad by Brandereth, which he prefers to Cowper's, dated 1846, and already forgotten. Will Mr. Dart's Hexameter Iliad, or Mr. Worsley's Spenserian Odyssey, be really long-lived, unless either author should become otherwise famous from some original writings? And if the public will not hear Pope, and Cowper, and Chapman, great indeed must be the genius whom they will hear; so great, indeed, that he had far better either tell "the tale of Troy divine" in his own way, as Mr. Spedding has suggested, or indite a completely new epic on his own account. Still, however, convinced one may be of the mythical character of that "coming man," that "future translator of Homer," who is the final cause of these lectures, the lectures themselves are most welcome. It was useful to Oxford undergraduates and tutors to be told how Homer should be translated; it was delightful to see his excellencies so lovingly felt and well defined; the discussion of the various English metres,

of the effect of metre upon style, and of the applicability of each to an heroic subject, was very valuable. Lastly, Mr. Arnold's opinion of the capacity of the English hexameter for epic style, raised an interesting controversy upon its probable future, and caused the publication (in the Transactions of the Cambridge Philosophical Society) of Mr. Munro's admirable paper, in which the whole subject of the transition from quantitative to accentual verse, and the relation of the ancient to the modern forms of versification, is treated with completeness and precision.

The first part of "Last Words," after an apology for departing at all from Buffon's maxim of never noticing criticism, is devoted to Mr. Newman's reply to the original lectures. That Mr. Arnold should have held up Mr. Newman's translation to the Oxford youth as "what to avoid," no one who has read a few lines of it will wonder. Mr. Newman has retorted in a pamphlet of 100 pages. Mr. Arnold now offers the *amende honorable*:—

"Any vivacities of expression which may have given him pain I sincerely regret, and can only assure him that I used them without a thought of insult or rancour. When I took the liberty of creating the verb to *Newmanise*, my intentions were no more rancorous than if I had said to *Miltonise*; when I exclaimed, in my astonishment at his vocabulary, 'With whom can Mr. Newman have lived?' I meant merely to convey, in a familiar form of speech, the sense of bewilderment one has at finding a person to whom words one thought all the world knew seem strange, and words one thought entirely strange, intelligible. Yet this simple expression of my bewilderment Mr. Newman construes into an accusation that he is 'often guilty of keeping low company,' and says that I shall 'never want a stone to throw at him.'"

The contrast between the two professors is amusing. Mr. Newman, the learned scholar, full of the strange words and phrases of Homer, his roughnesses and inequalities, impressed with the queer beliefs and barbarian usages of the time, right often in his facts, but breaking down sadly in his application of them; and Mr. Arnold, the refined gentleman, the poet, the fastidious critic, worshipping Homer as a god, denying that he is ever drowsy, or unequal, full of his unspeakable beauties, not always right in his facts, but unerring in his taste and feeling for his author. "You are quite ignorant," says Mr. Newman. "But you have no taste," says Mr. Arnold. Doubtless Mr. Arnold never intended to offend. But the sting lay in the air and manner of the thing. "*Odi profanum vulgus*" was written in every line of those lectures; something in the way that an aggravating sense of superiority to the whole peerage of England oozes out in every gesture of the noble lord now on the woolsack. "Mr. Arnold," says Mr. Newman, "assumes tones of great superiority; but every schoolboy knows that diffuseness is a characteristic of Homer;" and so he goes on, revelling in dragging down from his pedestal Mr. Arnold's divinity. Homer is "quaint to the very core;" "a noble barbarian;" "a savage with a lively eye." "It is all odd." "What people want to know are his oddities." His conceptions were often "grand to him, mean to us." "The coarsenesses of Homer." In all this there are some grains of truth. "Homer," says Mr. Newman, "would say to his translator, as Cromwell did to the painter, 'Paint me as I am, wart and all!'" Yes! But the face Mr. Newman paints is *all wart*. It is pock-marked all over. The divine features are altogether obscured and obliterated.

And even if it be true that Homer "seemed quaint to Sophocles," it does not follow that a translator of him may use words which are quaint to us; such as "blore," "uphoven," "harried," "hurly," "bragly," "bulkin," half of which are even unintelligible. But the great majority of mankind will agree with Mr. Arnold that Homer was to Sophocles much as the Bible is to us; and will think it is as absurd for Mr. Newman to use the words instanced above as it would be in a translator of Shakespeare into German to cram into his translation obsolete German words which were used in Shakespeare's age. Then Mr. Newman must insult the majesty of the hexameter:—"I have the conviction that, if the living Homer could sing his lines to us, they would at first move in us the same pleasing interest as an elegant and simple melody from an African of the Gold Coast; but that after hearing twenty lines we should complain of meagreness, sameness, and *loss of moral expression*."

It is quite conceivable, indeed probable, that could Homer be called up by Mr. Forster to recite his poems now, we should be startled to hear some strange monotonous chant utterly at variance with all preconceived notions of his harmony and rhythm. Our ears are not attuned to ancient music, and they might well be no more ready to welcome him in this guise, than the eyes of the traveller, who gazes on the calm weather-beaten faces of Egyptian rock-statues, would be pleased to see them smeared over with the bright red paint which those who made them thought an ornament. But Mr. Arnold rightly shows that it is neither the effect of Homer on his own contemporaries, nor on Sophocles, that we are concerned with; but the effect of Homer upon us now.

Thus, wherever Mr. Newman may have some reason on his side in the argument, in the practical conclusion to be drawn Mr. Arnold is nearly always in the right. Of the critical hints and remarks and the examples of "the grand style" in "Last Words," we shall only say that in all these matters of poetical criticism Mr. Arnold is a thoroughly competent and trustworthy guide. His definition of "nobleness," or the "grand style," that it arises when a noble nature, poetically gifted, treats with simplicity or severity a "serious subject," is indeed a little like the definition of stealing, that "it is taking a thing with a felonious intent to deprive the owner of it." But in his case there is more excuse. These are matters of taste and feeling, and the clearest definitions will not help the man who has no natural feeling for them. "He will die in his sins," as Mr. Arnold warns him,—Mr. Arnold, whose religion is a sound poetical and literary taste.

One important subject remains: the future of the English hexameter. Mr. Newman objects that it has a "jig;" it is not fit for *grand* poetry; is not popular; though he confesses that, in a wild half-burlesque poem like Mr. Clough's, it was successful. Mr. Spedding scoffs at it altogether; and proposes, on the Virgilian model, a quantitative hexameter, of which this is a specimen:—

"Softly cometh slumber, closing th' o'erwearied eyelid."

We do not indeed understand him to be serious in his proposal, for he says something to the effect that nine-tenths of the words in our language could hardly be used in it; and can anything be more Utopian than the notion of a committee of taste sitting to agree what syllables shall be held long and what

* On Translating Homer—Last Words. By Matthew Arnold. London: Longmans.

short, and to draw up an English gradus? And yet this very thing was done in the sixteenth century, as Mr. Munro reminds him, and no less a poet than Spenser took part in it. "In a letter to his friend Gabriel Harvey," says Mr. Munro, "he informs him that Mr. Sidney and Mr. Dyer 'have proclaimed in their ἀπὸ πᾶν a general surceasing and silence of bald rhymers. . . . By authority of their whole senate they have prescribed certain rules and laws of quantities of English syllables for English verse, having had already great practice and almost drawn me into their faction.' In another letter he goes farther. He likes Harvey's hexameters so well that he also 'enures his penne sometime in that kinde.' Thus for instance:—

"See ye the blindefoulded pretie god, that feathered archer?
Wot ye why his mother with a veale hath covered his face?"

But there were difficulties in the way: "the chiefest hardness is in the accent . . . as in *carpenter* the middle syllable being used short in speech when it should be read long in verse, seemeth like a lame gosling." Yet, "why, a God's name, may not we, as the Greeks, have the kingdom of our own language and measure, our accents by the sound, referring the quantity to the verse?" But the satirists were upon them even then. Nash parodies Harvey:—

"O thou weathercock that stands at the top of Allhallows,
Come thy ways down if thou dar'st for thy crown, and take the wall on us;"

and quaintly and truly writes:—"The hexameter verse I grant to be a gentleman of an ancient house (so is many an English beggar), yet this cline of ours he cannot thrive in; our speech is too craggy for him to set his plough in; he goes twitching and hopping in our language, like a man running upon quagmires up hill in one syllable and down the dale in another, retaining no part of that smooth gait which he vaunts himself with amongst the Greeks and Latins."

And, indeed, Mr. Munro shows that such a proposal was in its nature absurd; that quantity, when it existed, was an intrinsic part of the language, known alike to shepherd and poet; that the Virgilian accent was not a mere stress, as Mr. Spedding supposed, and had nothing to do with his versification. But suddenly and mysteriously the language decayed; accent turned into a mere stress; and in the third or fourth century Comedian and others wrote hexameters depending entirely upon mere stress in pronouncing, as ours do. In this way all modern metres are derived from the ancient, by substituting the stress or modern accent for the ancient quantity and ictus. Thus the French Alexandrine and our own ten-syllable verse came from the old iambics. So far the present English hexameter is on a par with all its modern brethren. It may yet establish itself, as Mr. Arnold hopes. But it needs much improvement. Mr. Munro has seen no hexameters to satisfy him, either in English or German. Dr. Hawtrey's eleven famous hexameters seem to be the only ones existing which can claim to be really up to the mark of polish and excellence needed for a great poem. Even Mr. Spedding confesses that they have "an agreeable canter." But can this be kept up, and without monotony, through a long poem? There is the rub. Mr. Arnold is confident that in a few years the hexameter will improve, and become better known, and then is the time for his *coming man*.

Yet, alas for the roughness of our tongue! Will not our consonants always be too much for us? Carpenter, with the middle syllable long, is a lame gosling; will not Carpenter, as a dactyl, be far from winged? The problem "*solvitur ambulando*," says Mr. Arnold. Let Mr. Arnold produce an original poem of a few hundred harmonious English hexameters. There is a practical suggestion such as he loves; and that is about the only thing he can do to accelerate the approach of that personage now looming in the very distant future, if not in *nubibus*, his "coming translator of Homer."

L'OUVRIÈRE.*

M. JULES SIMON has long been honourably known as occupying a distinguished position among the philosophers of France. A pupil of Cousin, he became his master's deputy at the Sorbonne in 1839, and for twelve years kept up all the *clat* which had attended the lectures of that brilliant rhetorician. The year 1848 brought him for the first time into public life, and he was elected representative for the Côtes-du-Nord. Even then he had begun to interest himself for the lower orders. He made one of the commission appointed to superintend the organization of labour. In the perilous days of June, he was amongst those who showed most courage in going among the insurgents, and he was chosen president of the commission charged with the care of the wounded. In December, 1851, his course of lectures was suspended by special decree, and a few months later his refusal to give in his allegiance to the new Government terminated his political existence. Of late years he has interested himself greatly in the condition of the working classes. The book before us is the immediate result of his inquiries into the state of the operatives employed in the chief manufactures of France. It acquires a melancholy interest, as contradicting the notion, too widely spread in this country, that if the Imperial régime is distasteful to the upper ranks of French society, it has at least brought happiness to the masses. There is little evidence of such happiness in "L'Ouvrière."

M. Simon divides his subject into four parts, treating first of those persons employed in the manufacture of silk; secondly, of those employed in all other manufactures where machinery is used; and, thirdly, of what he terms "la petite industrie," under which head he comprehends every species of work done by hand. The fourth and last part of the book is devoted to the summing up of the great argument which runs through the whole of it, namely, that all efforts to improve the condition of the operative classes must be useless unless the woman occupies her natural position of manager of the household and nurse to the children; in fact, till both man and woman can, from infancy, enjoy the safeguards of home.

It is, perhaps, scarcely necessary to say that Lyons is the great centre of silk manufacture. Its productions are everywhere sought after, and though everywhere imitated, there is a certain perfection in the true Lyonesse silks which has not yet been attained by those of any other place. Of all manufactures it is the one which affords most employment to women, from the time when the egg of the silkworm is first bought, and through the different

stages of its progress, till they are required to make it up into various objects of utility. But there is one point at which they become useless. They are unable to design patterns, or form combinations of colours—a fact which has been proved by a long series of unsuccessful experiments.

The Lyonesse merchant is not the superintendent of his own works; or, rather, he has no works to superintend. He buys the raw silk, and has it woven in workshops which do not belong to him. M. Simon gives an interesting account of the persons at the head of these workshops, who form a class by themselves:—

"The masters," he says, "of workshops form a very interesting and very curious class not to be found elsewhere, for they are distinctly working-men, and do not seek, like most master-men in other branches of trade, to connect themselves with the bourgeoisie. Whether they are sons of masters, or whether they have reached their position by labouring long as journeymen, they do their day's work in the workshop like the others; their work is paid for by the merchant in the same way, and at the same price; they direct their apprentices, but do not interfere with the journeymen, over whom they have no more authority than a landlord over his tenant. They wear the same costume, and meet at the same places of amusement on a Sunday."

These positions are frequently filled by women, who stand at the head of their profession, both as regards the wages they receive and the conditions under which they work. These are most favourable. They are not compelled to leave their homes, and can consequently give all necessary attention to domestic duties, while without violent exertions they can earn from five to seven francs in the day. The lot of those under them is very different. The weavers (*tisseurs*), who occupy the next place, cannot, under the most fortunate circumstances, circumstances which fluctuate greatly, gain more than 1 franc 50 centimes, or 1s. 3d. English, per day. For this they are compelled to work twelve hours in the twenty-four. Even below these there are several kinds of workers, who have charge of the different processes through which the silk goes. Their wages in some cases fall as low as 80 centimes. We must add that they are never free from the chance of being out of work (*chômage*); at the best of times there are some among them who do not work more than three days a week.

The protection awarded by law to young women and children is of little avail, from the absence of any proper machinery to work it. It aims at rather less than the English law in favour of the same persons, comprehending in the youngest class of children those from eight to twelve, while in England it is eight to thirteen. Moreover, one hour more work is required of young children, and half an hour more of adult children, than in England. The people of Lyons are unwilling to send their daughters to the manufactures, and the young apprentices for the most part come from a distance.

M. Simon urges in the strongest manner the advantages of decentralizing labour. The two chief of these are, first, that the *chef d'atelier*, or middleman, is got rid of; and, secondly, that the system of work adopted can be carried out at home. This is the case at Viersen and Crefeld, where it succeeds admirably; but all he says on the subject is of course only applicable to the manufacture of silk.

The second part of the book describes the remaining manufactures of France, principally directing its attention to spinning and wool-carding. The latter is less unhealthy and less disagreeable than the former. Many kinds of flax and hemp require to be prepared in a high temperature and with water, the result of which is that the female operatives employed are compelled to spend their day of thirteen hours and a half, standing half naked, with their bare feet in water, and the transition from the extreme heat to the outer cold entails a large proportion of chest disease. But this is rather the exception than the rule. On the whole, women occupied in factories have little to complain of as far as their actual work is concerned. But the total absence of family life and the many evils resulting therefrom, reduces them to the utmost misery. The rate of infant mortality is frightful. At St. Vivien and St. Madon de Rouen, 53 per cent. of children died at the crèches, or public nurseries, in one year; 83 per cent. at the Foundling Hospital. Thus, though families are large, population is stationary. Drunkenness exists to an enormous extent, in spite of every effort of the masters to check it; and St. Quentin, Rheims, Rouen, and Lille, more than rival Paris in profligacy. We shall not follow M. Simon through his description of the homes, such as they are, to be found in these principal manufacturing towns. The homes of an overcrowded population must be only too familiar to all in this country, where everything is made public, though we know how valuable such details must be where an exactly opposite line of conduct is pursued.

As the two first portions of "L'Ouvrière" are written to prove that family life cannot exist without the constant presence of the woman, so the third shows that the woman cannot exist in an isolated position. It treats of the various ways of making an honest livelihood in vogue amongst women, from making the finest lace down to washing and plain sewing. Lace produces but little to the actual worker. Those who make the two richest kinds, point d'Alençon and Valenciennes, gain from one franc to one franc thirty centimes a day. The latter is no longer made to any extent in the place which bears its name, but comes chiefly from Ypres, Courtray, Ghent, and other towns in Flanders.

Another of the *petites industries* is the cutting and polishing of precious stones:—

"It is easy to understand that Paris is the centre of artificial flower-making; but by what *bizarre* and inexplicable anomalies are the lapidaries settled at Septmoncel on the summit of the Jura? The diamond is cut at Amsterdam by the aid of powerful machinery and in vast workshops, as befits the richest gem of the earth; the rest of our gems, the ruby, the sapphire, the green emerald, the pale aqua-marine with its soft light, the charming amethyst, the opal with its glaring colours, all these toys of luxury and folly are cut and polished in the wild of a desert, by an indigent and purely mountainous population."

Watchmaking is scarcely recognized as a trade for women in France. M. Simon suggests it as one they might be employed in with advantage. After speaking of several local callings, such as glass-cutting, burnishing, gilding, and others, he proceeds to mention three equally necessary everywhere, namely, domestic service, washing, and sewing. In Paris there is a great evil peculiar to the former. The enormous cost of house-rent drives the landlord to economise every corner of space. The result is that the servants are packed away in wretched garrets under the roofs, hot and stifling in summer

* L'Ouvrière. Par M. Jules Simon. Paris: Hachette. 1862.

bitterly cold in winter, not to mention the manifold evils which arise from the absolute want of all superintendence on the part of either master or landlord. The condition of needlewomen in Paris is almost exactly similar to that of the same class in London. In the best times, after allowing the smallest possible sums for rent, fuel, and clothes, there remains a fraction less than sixpence a day to supply every other want. The fact is that labour, unless accompanied by skill or brute strength, is almost useless for the purposes of a livelihood out of a manufactory.

The fourth and concluding division describes the various means which have been tried to raise the position of the workman by benefit clubs, savings-banks, and mutual aid societies. The most successful attempt appears to be that which has founded a workmen's colony (*cité ouvrière*) at Mulhouse:—

"Between Mulhouse and Dornach a wide plain extends itself, crossed by the canal which surrounds the town. There, in good air, on the banks of the canal, in close proximity to the factories, the society of workmen's colonies has traced the plan of its new town. The ground is perfectly flat; the streets, in which the plan has not been economised, are built at right angles. As each house is surrounded by a garden, trees and flowers are to be seen on all sides, and the air is as pure, and circulates with as much freedom, as in the open country."

These houses cost the workman from 2,400 to 3,000 francs, payable in instalments. The idea of each man becoming a proprietor at first made but slow progress, but in 1861 there were but ninety-seven out of 560 houses unsold.

We heartily recommend M. Simon's book to our readers. In the short space of a review it is impossible to do justice to the pure, kindly, elevated tone which pervades it throughout, any more than to its sterling good sense and its freedom from the whining cant and sickly sentimentality which too often accompany benevolence.

MUSIC.

CRYSTAL PALACE CONCERTS.—MISS ARABELLA GODDARD'S BENEFIT.—HER MAJESTY'S THEATRE.

THERE is one point in connexion with our musical performances, which, to our mind, has yet to be satisfactorily settled. The taste for good music, and the desire of hearing that music well performed, have spread so rapidly of late, that many of the existing concert-rooms have been found too small for the reception of vast audiences. To remedy this evil our new music-halls have been constructed on a more extensive plan; but it would seem that, in proportion as the form expands, does the chance of obtaining a satisfactory performance diminish, it being notorious that the more spacious the *locale*, the less perfect the execution of the music. As a proof of this, we need only refer to the Great Handel Festivals, and to the opening of the Exhibition in 1851. If, then, a large body of performers fails in creating the desired impression, how much more must this be the case when the executants are comparatively small in number, or are limited, as in quartets, trios, and sonatas, to a few! The human voice cannot be forced beyond its natural compass, nor can the sound of a single instrument be expected to fill a large arena, and yet some such exigency would almost appear to be indispensable at the present day, in order to arrive at a successful result. We are led to these remarks in having to speak of the last Saturday concert at the Crystal Palace, where that greatest of all violinists, Herr Joachim, made his second appearance, and performed Beethoven's violin concerto, for the first time during his present stay in London. On no occasion do we remember having seen the large concert-room so densely crowded. Without wishing to detract from the general merits of the performance, we may be allowed to say that the attraction was solely concentrated in the presence of the celebrated "virtuoso," who, it would appear, now more than ever excites the admiration of the musical public, and bids fair to become the "lion" of the season. Who, indeed, could help being attracted by his masterly performances? Of all his great achievements, however, the execution of Beethoven's concerto is the greatest. In the music of Mendelssohn, Spohr, or Viotti, we cannot but admire the beauty of his tone, the warmth of his expression, his faultless mechanism, his unerring intonation, as well as his artistic conception. It is, however, in Beethoven's compositions that we hear the German violinist in all his grandeur, and are able to estimate his genius at its fullest value. With this concerto he laid the foundation of his success in England; with this concerto, too, will his name pass down to future generations. But it may be asked, wherein lies the superiority of his playing of this concerto, as compared to his other performances? It lies in the depth of his reading; in the extraordinary perspicuity with which he reveals the beauties of the composition; in his manner of grappling with the enormous difficulties that abound in the work, and in the devout ardour of his expression. It is difficult, where there is so much to admire, to single out certain portions of his performances, for special praise; but if we might be allowed to express an opinion, we should cite the first and second movements as the most admirable, both as regards reading and execution. How calm, how noble, is his rendering of the "cantabile," in the first allegro; how impassioned his execution of the phrases that are built upon the second subject! But it is above all in the adagio, one of the most pathetic and fanciful effusions of the great composer, that Herr Joachim, we think, appears to the greatest advantage. It is with reference to this part of the concert that we spoke of his devoutness of expression. Mere feeling does not suffice here. The instrument ceases to be a thing of mechanical contrivance, and becomes, as it were, the mirror of the soul. The melody of this movement must have strangely haunted Mendelssohn when he wrote the song in "St. Paul,"—"But the Lord is mindful of his own," so strong is the likeness between the subjects, both being, moreover, in the key of G major. The cadences, introduced by Herr Joachim, in the first and last movements, are not the same we heard on a former occasion. They are somewhat shorter, and, perhaps, not quite so ambitious, but, nevertheless, extremely appropriate. We could have wished for a little more contrast between the cadence in the allegro and that of the rondo, more especially in their treatment, con-

dering the difference of character in the music, the one being lofty, the other humorous. It would lead us too far were we to enumerate the various characteristics of his performance. Suffice it to say, that a more perfect rendering of a perfect work could not be heard. We fear, however, that many of the most salient points, the most delicate touches, were lost to a large part of the audience, precisely on account of the extensive proportions of the room. Be this as it may, the concerto was listened to with wrapt attention from first to last, and created the greatest enthusiasm.

Miss Robertine Henderson, of whose promising talent we have frequently spoken in noticing the concerts of the Royal Academy of Music, made her first appearance at the Crystal Palace. She met with so flattering a reception that it was evident her name had already travelled beyond the precincts of the institution to which she belongs; indeed, we know of no young singer in London who gives so much hope of future excellence. Her voice, though not powerful, is yet telling and sympathetic; her style, while being free from affectation, is remarkably winning and graceful; and in her execution she displays many very valuable qualities. Nothing could be better than her phrasing in the aria "Sombres forêts," from "Guillaume Tell,"—as pure in intonation as it was refined in feeling. The beautiful ballad, "I'm alone," from Mr. Benedict's "Lily of Killarney," was likewise given with much tenderness and simplicity. Even extreme nervousness, to which all *débutants* are liable, could not prevent Miss Henderson from fulfilling her task in the most satisfactory manner. Mr. Swift was the other vocalist. Two pieces were set down for him in the programme,—*"Love sounds the Alarm,"* from "Acis and Galatea," and "Eily Mavourneen," from Mr. Benedict's new opera; but, suffering from hoarseness, an apology was made for him, and the second song omitted. The orchestra performed, with its usual precision and effect, Schumann's symphony in B flat, and Weber's overture to "Turandot."

It was not at all surprising to find St. James's Hall filled to overflowing on Monday last, on the occasion of Miss Arabella Goddard's benefit, and her last appearance this season at the Monday Popular Concerts. Though repeatedly before the public, it is at these concerts that her great talent has been most abundantly displayed. The *répertoire* of orchestral works is very limited, in comparison with that of chamber-music compositions, and hence the frequent repetition of certain acknowledged masterpieces. To know, however, an artist in his varied capacities, and to judge of his merits, we must look to *all* his achievements, rather than to a few. It is for this reason that the Monday Popular Concerts have offered Miss Goddard the widest field for distinction, inasmuch as her numerous appearances necessitated a constant change of programmes. We know not who will be called upon to fill her place during her absence; but this we know, that no pianist, be he English or foreign, will easily succeed in effacing the impression she has left behind. Indeed, we may safely assert, that in many respects she is without a rival. Neither should it be forgotten, that Miss Goddard has appeared, alternately, with one of the greatest piano players of modern times,—we mean Mr. Charles Hallé. Not only has she stood her ground bravely and nobly, but she has often challenged comparison, and in many cases carried away the palm. That the public should be eager, therefore, to show their admiration for the brilliant talent of this accomplished lady, is not to be wondered at. The pieces selected by Miss Goddard for this important occasion testified to her artistic feeling, and evinced, in a high degree, her executive powers. Besides the prelude and fugue, *alla Tarantella*, by Bach, with which she produced so great an effect at the Philharmonic Society, and Beethoven's "Kreutzer" sonata for pianoforte and violin, with Herr Joachim, the great pianiste played the sonata in C minor, Op. 111, for piano solo, the last sonata for that instrument bequeathed to the world by the immortal composer. Of Bach's fugue and its performance we have already spoken in our preceding number. To dwell upon the merits of the famous "concertante" sonata dedicated to Kreutzer is equally superfluous, having stated that Miss Goddard was assisted by Herr Joachim. It only remains for us to say a few words on the music and the execution of Beethoven's "Testament Sonata," as it is called. "Approchons avec respect de la dernière sonate de Beethoven, du dernier accent de cette lyre sans rivale," says M. Lenz, in his book on "Beethoven et ses Trois Styles." "Respect" is a poor word indeed to apply to so grand a work; *veneration* would have been far more appropriate, since it is one of the most sublime compositions of the great master. It consists of two movements—the first an allegro, preceded by a majestic introduction,—the second an adagio, with variations. They are not variations, however, in the ordinary sense of the word, but such as only Beethoven knew how to write. In listening to the last strains of this poetic inspiration, one cannot help feeling moved at this solemn leave-taking, this tender "Lebe-wohl," as the author of the analytical remarks on the sonata expresses himself, "to the instrument which he had raised to the dignity of the orchestra, and on the keys of which he had revealed the entire secret of his artistic life."

It is impossible to do justice to Miss Goddard's exquisite performance of this wonderful work. So delicate was her touch in some of the variations on the "Arietta," that her fingers seemed to float over the key-board, and the notes became words, full of the deepest pathos. We must not forget to mention that the concert opened with an early quartet of Haydn, charmingly played by Messrs. Joachim, Ries, Webb, and Paque. The vocal music was intrusted to Miss Clari Fraser and Mr. Tennant.

We will now turn to a less serious if not less interesting subject, leave the glories of the concert-room, and give our attention to the prospects of the theatre. Last week we scanned the programme of the Royal Italian Opera; to-day we have before us the prognostics of Her Majesty's Theatre. It is difficult to express an opinion where all is doubt; but one thing is certain, Mr. Mapleson has already beaten Mr. Gye—in the length of his prospectus and in the exuberance of his language. The latter naturally claims for his theatre the foremost place among the great lyric establishments in Europe; the former, in speaking of Her Majesty's Theatre, proudly asserts that "no other opera-house in existence can boast of equal advantages." Mr. Gye describes the successful career of

Mdlle. Patti. Mr. Mapleson, with commendable enthusiasm, exalts in the genius of Mdlle. Tietjens, who constitutes "the last link of that chain of glorious 'prime donne' commencing with Catalani;" and assures us that "by one alone" of living artistes has the "high ideal" been reached; viz., by Mdlle. Tietjens. The manager is deeply impressed with the responsibilities of the undertaking, and points to the list of singers, and other arrangements, to show that everything will be done to render the performances worthy of the theatre and public support. As far as we can judge, he has done his best to collect a good company, perhaps not particularly strong in names (many being unknown), but complete in every department. Signor Giuglini, of whose merits Mr. Mapleson says not a word, of course heads the list of tenors. Whether Signori Armandi and Cappello, two new comers, are rivals of Signor Giuglini or of Signor Soldi we are unable to decide. Among the baritones, we observe the name of Gilardoni, a singer enjoying a great reputation in Italy, and who will make his first appearance in "Un Ballo in Maschera," as Renato, the *cheval de bataille* of Signor delle Sedie. As basso, we notice the engagement of Signor Zucchini, a conscientious artist, though not in the possession of a beautiful voice. He is at present performing at the Italian Opera in Paris. Signor Graziani will appear, and will not appear, though he cannot possibly be in London before the month of July, says Mr. Mapleson, being engaged at Barcelona. Of course if he sings at Barcelona, he cannot well be heard in London, and yet he forms one of the "troupe" of Mr. Gye. Even supposing his engagement with the latter gentleman not to commence until July, how can he, after that time, appear both at Covent Garden and at her Majesty's Theatre? True, he might declaim the "recitativo" in one place, sing the "cabaletta" in another, and attack the "coda" so furiously that he may be heard in both theatres at the same time. But Mr. Mapleson does not even hint at such a thing. In short, we leave it to Lord Dundreary to unravel this mystery. We have designedly reserved speaking of the ladies "pour la bonne bouche." There are no less than nine "Mademoiselles" and one "Madame," though among the "Demoselles," if we are not mistaken, we detect many a "Madame." Why Madame Lemaire should be the only one who owns to a better half it is not for us to decide. All we hope is, that Mesdemoiselles Kellogg, Louisa Michal, Dario, and Florio, as well as Mademoiselle Trebelli, of whom report speaks highly, will do honour to their country, their name, and their profession. Of "Mademoiselle" Guerrabella, whose impersonations on the English stage have been more successful than numerous, we shall be pleased to have occasion of speaking in terms of praise. The sisters Marchisio are not entirely unknown in this country, having appeared at St. James's Hall some few months since. Their performance on the stage in "Semiramide" will no doubt awaken considerable interest. No new operas are added to the old repertoire; but the most popular works of Donizetti, Rossini, Verdi, Meyerbeer, Balfe, and Flotow, will be performed during the season. Mozart and Weber will not be forgotten in the "Temple of Art." Signor Arditi retains the *bâton* as *chef d'orchestre*. Messrs. Blagrove and Cooper are leaders of the band, consisting of the members of the Philharmonic Society, while the chorus will be carefully selected. So far so good. We wish Mr. Mapleson every possible success in his "lofty and onerous enterprise."

CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

THE SYNTHETICAL MANUFACTURE OF ACETYLENE.

UP to within a recent period, the division of the science of chemistry into inorganic and organic was one which could be defined with some accuracy. Organic chemistry was held to include the study of all chemical compounds which required for their production the agency of vitality, and which could not be formed artificially in the laboratory; whilst inorganic chemistry treated of all bodies which were capable of being built up from their elements by artificial means. Some one or two compounds which were met with as purely vegetable productions, but which were also capable of synthetical formation in the laboratory (acetic acid and oxalic acid, for instance), occupied the border land dividing the two great kingdoms, and formed frequent ground of argument as to which class they should belong. Gradually, however, other instances of the artificial formation of organic compounds were published, and in course of time these so multiplied that organic and inorganic chemistry are at the present day almost incapable of being separated by an exact line of demarcation, but merge insensibly one into another; the border-land of organic bodies built up from their elements, having increased to such an extent as almost to form a third division of its own, and threatening to absorb the organic class altogether. Foremost amongst the workers in this new branch of synthetical chemistry stands M. Berthelot, who has succeeded, by the direct union of one element after another, in building up classes of bodies with very complicated formulæ. Perhaps the crowning discovery of all, and one which must certainly be regarded as a most important chemical achievement, has just been communicated by him to the French Academy of Science. This consists in the synthesis of a hydro-carbon by the direct union of its elements, hydrogen and carbon. These compounds have before been formed artificially, in less direct ways, and the well-known chemical indifference of carbon at the ordinary temperature to the most powerful agents, and even at a red heat to all but oxygen and sulphur, rendered it almost hopeless to attempt to effect its union with hydrogen in any but an indirect manner; especially since all hydro-carbons hitherto prepared are decomposed at a red heat.

Some recent researches of M. Berthelot upon acetylene—the hydro-carbon containing least hydrogen—having shown that it possessed considerable stability under powerful decomposing influences, it seemed just worth attempting to prepare this gas from its elements. The first step was to procure pure materials. In the case of hydrogen this offered no difficulty, but with carbon it was different. The impurities which this body contains, in its ordinary condition, are very numerous, and resist all but the most energetic attempts at their elimina-

tion; the only method, in fact, in which they can be removed being by the action of chlorine at a red heat, as recommended by M. Dumas.

Perfectly pure hydrogen and carbon having been obtained, the next step was to induce them to unite chemically. The action of a red heat was first tried, but without success. A higher temperature was next essayed, and the hydrogen was allowed to flow over the carbon contained in porcelain tubes heated to whiteness; but after more than an hour's exposure to this temperature, the porcelain melted like glass, without any trace of acetylene being produced. There yet remained the powerful action of electricity, or, indeed, the joint influence of this agent combined with heat. Carbon was exposed in an atmosphere of hydrogen to the influence of the induction spark; but although the experiment was modified in various ways, it was attended with as little success as the former methods. As a last resource there remained the action of the electric arc between two carbon poles, in which were united an excessive elevation of temperature, together with the transport of carbon across the intensely-heated space. The carbon poles, previously purified with chlorine, were introduced into an atmosphere of hydrogen, and the experiment tried. It succeeded at once; the gas acetylene was produced as the sole result as soon as the luminous arc appeared, and continued to be formed so long as any carbon was left; four atoms of carbon uniting with two atoms of hydrogen; the resulting gas being passed into an appropriate absorbing solution, containing copper, from which it might afterwards be liberated for examination. This experiment was shown before the Academy; it is described as being very striking, both on account of the brilliancy of the electric light and the characteristic formation of the acetylide of copper. It is also very easily performed, and may take its place as an instructive chemical experiment.

This brilliant result, the importance of which, in a scientific point of view, can scarcely be over-estimated, is a point of departure for a vast number of similar synthetical formations. By a simple addition of hydrogen, olefiant gas may be obtained, and from this gas alcohol is readily prepared, and thus the key obtained to the artificial production of the chain of compounds whose entirety constitutes organic chemistry. These researches may, to the superficial observer, seem devoid of value. The utilitarian may ask of what use are they. Certainly the isolated fact which we have here recorded seems of little direct use; but it must be remembered that this is the crowning one of a series of researches which M. Berthelot has for many years been carrying on. By it, and analogous results, chemists are unfolding the laws by which Nature works in her vast laboratories of the animal and vegetal world. Already, by a careful imitation of her processes, we are enabled to prepare from refuse and repulsive substances, perfumes of the most delicate fragrance, as well as other bodies of commercial importance. Every day some new organic compound of value or rarity is being built up in the workshop of the chemist; each week the student and imitator of Nature's skilful architecture is enabled to compose organic substances of increased complexity of composition, until the secrets of the actual formation of such bodies as quinine and morphia seem almost within grasp. And with such prizes as this to reward the successful chemist, the most utilitarian spirit will hesitate to ask, "Cui bono?" of the labourers in this fascinating branch of synthetical chemistry.

CORRESPONDENCE.

ON THE RELATIONS OF LIGHT AND COLOUR.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—The paper on "The Relations of Light and Colour," enlarged on by you in the Supplements of December 21st and 28th, goes over so much of the ground over which I have previously gone, that I think my experiments ought to have had a more particular mention. I was the first to make a systematic inquiry into the colours obtained by these revolving rays of white over a black surface, and my theory of the homogeneity of light has arisen from it. Although only lately made public, my experiments and theory are the result of many years of inquiry. I have not been fortunate in having my drawings and views prominently put before the world; I hope, however, that you will permit me to state what the investigations are to which I allude.

At the meeting of the British Association at Aberdeen I attempted to show—

1. That, from various physical as well as physiological phenomena, we have arguments which warrant us to conclude that the pulsations in the luminous ether are at greater intervals than is generally admitted.

2. That a negative, i.e. a no-light or no-motion, is essential to the production of colour.

3. In imitation of these pulsations, experiments were made in presence of Section A., showing the production of colour by the motion of a ray of white light over a black ground.

4. It was also shown how, by altering the construction of the figures, the rays could be changed, but that those colours which are allied to red could be systematically separated from those which are allied to blue.

5. That other most remarkable phenomenon of polarization—the colours of the alternate rings becoming instantly complimentary to each other, on reversing the motion of the undecomposed white ray reflected from the card.

6. It was also shown how, by certain constructions, the coloured refraction of transparent crystals could be imitated by making the card revolve, pointing upwards. The white card appears a transparent solid, beautifully coloured.

7. To carry out the analogy to refraction through crystals, the card may be perforated, and the figures exhibited on a screen, the light being transmitted through the openings. This last could not be shown at Aberdeen for want of light.

Finally, it was shortly explained to the section how these discoveries could be applied to the explanation of the colours produced by the prism.

After the above statement, the question naturally arises, what is it which the author of "The Relations of Light and Colour" would claim as his own? And as it is incontestable that most brilliant colours are produced by these experiments without the aid of any refracting medium, we are brought nearer and nearer to the conclusion that the ether is a homogeneous substance, unless there still exist some who can make themselves believe that certain phenomena arise from "certain affections of the retina," or that they are "phenomena, not real."

Perth Academy.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

JOHN SMITH, M.A.

SIR,—ment by palpable fessors the follow time; but pendions to which In the "Chemical" The performed size of a &c., which in a mark of gas in uniformly diameter. "If a s curious pl luminous v which mig very brillia intensely bl ing the cur scrutiny wi cone in whi dark space the existenc "The flar or sperm, p flame will al menon in a An approp ment of the "smoky outl The illust June, 1861, Professor Ro of a lecture-r beauty and th

6, Ashby-ro [No account journal.—Ed.

THE U

All hopes yesterday (Fri of the Garden unless it be th of members an blanket in unc snake, caused development of tion, were in the lengthened perio will be rememb cold. They we zoological collect her location in t The necessity were in, but the i tably at least on food, now thirty- she were allowed fully during the c soon have another has excited, when could be, with pr ground for offence ANTIQUARIAN P struction of a sew of the contractors of of ancient pottery to the fifteenth ce Samian ware, wit A few fragments c large and very fine encountered, based scored red tiles we found, still bearin Roman Samian wa JUSTIN—LVFI II turned up and disp coverably lost to th "grey beards" of and several tobacco excavations within Walter Raleigh ty THE BRIGHTON works at Brighton, week's impressio children, with furn (£12,600), and pur with its steam-eng water has now rise sea, and is still con

SPECTRUM ANALYSIS.

SIR.—The error in your impression of the 22nd inst., ascribing to me an experiment by Mr. W. Crookes, in a letter from Professor Roscoe, of Manchester, was palpable to those who study the method of chemical analysis pursued by Professors Bunsen and Kirchhoff, and having been corrected by Professor Roscoe, in the following number of your journal, might require no further comment at this time; but I have been unable to discover, in the scientific columns of your compendious journal, any detailed account of the valuable experiment of Mr. Crookes, to which allusion was there made.

In the "Philosophical Magazine" for January, 1861, and again in the "Chemical News," of the 5th January of the same year, Mr. Crookes published an account of this experiment as follows:—

"The atmosphere of a room, near to that part of it where the illustration is performed, is impregnated with soda-smoke, by igniting a piece of sodium, the size of a pea, on wet blotting-paper. Any flame, whether of gas, spirit, a candle, &c., which may now be burning anywhere in that part of the room, will exhibit in a marked manner the well-known yellow soda-flame; and if the full amount of gas in a wire-gauze air-burner is turned on and ignited, it will give a uniformly brilliant yellow flame, upwards of a foot in height and three inches in diameter.

"If a small flame be now moved in front of this large one, it will exhibit a curious phenomenon. Those parts of it which are ordinarily seen to be luminous will suffer no change other than that slight diminution in intensity which might be anticipated from their projection in front of a broad, but not very brilliant source of light; beyond these there will appear a sharply cut and intensely black narrow border, closely surrounding the visible flame, and presenting the curious appearance of the latter being set in an opaque frame. A closer scrutiny will show that this black rim is not, as I at first supposed, in that outer cone in which the yellow soda-flame is most distinctly seen, but that it lies in the dark space immediately outside the luminous part of the flame, affording proof of the existence of another invisible cone of vapour.

"The flame from a tallow candle shows this appearance better than that of wax or sperm, probably on account of its inferior luminosity. A small spirit or gas flame will also answer very well; but I think a tallow candle shows the phenomenon in a more striking manner."

An appropriate name for this beautiful experiment would be Crookes's experiment of the snap-dragon, so familiar are we with its "black borders" and "smoky outlines," exemplified in the dancing flames of that common pastime.

The illustration of the same experiment, figured in your journal of the 29th June, 1861, for which improper credit was given to me by your impression of Professor Roscoe's letter, referred to above, was prepared by request for the table of a lecture-room, and possessed no interest further than this, beyond its lively beauty and the convenience of its form for the purpose intended.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

ALEXANDER S. HERSCHEL.

6, Ashby-road, Canonbury, N., March 31, 1862.

[No account of Mr. Crookes's experiment has ever been printed in this journal.—ED. LONDON REVIEW.]

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

THE UNSUCCESSFUL INCUBATION OF THE PYTHON.

ALL hopes of the hatching are now at an end: the eggs were removed yesterday (Friday) morning. No blame whatever can attach to the authorities of the Gardens, or the keepers, for this unfortunate result on any account, unless it be the very forgivable one of a too polite attention to the wishes of members and visitors. There is no doubt that the frequent removals of the blanket in uncovering the eggs, and the occasional partial uncoiling of the snake, caused too numerous sudden changes of temperature for the proper development of the young, which originally we know, from Mr. Bartlett's dissection, were in them. The effects of these disturbances attained a climax in the lengthened period of the snake's absence in shedding her skin, during which, it will be remembered from our former statement, the eggs became completely cold. They were removed under the direction of the superintendent of the zoological collection, by her keeper, who has attended her during the whole of her location in the Gardens, for more than seven years.

The necessity for their removal was not only apparent from the bad state they were in, but the impoverished condition of the python, diminished in bulk by probably at least one-third of her former dimensions, and her long absence from food, now thirty-two weeks, naturally led to anxiety as to her ultimate safety if she were allowed to hopelessly continue her sitting. The snake behaved spitefully during the operation. We cannot but express the hope that Dr. Sclater will soon have another opportunity of satisfying the interest which this incubation has excited, when the like deference to the natural inquisitiveness of the public could be, with propriety, forbidden by the council of the Society, without any ground for offence against them.

ANTIQUARIAN RELICS IN SOUTHWARK.—In carrying on the works for the construction of a sewer and subway at the east end of the new street in Southwark, the contractors of the Metropolitan Board of Works have cut through a deposit of ancient pottery and other miscellanea of various ages, from the Roman period to the fifteenth century. Amongst the former remains are several fragments of Samian ware, with mouldings and figures in bas-relief of the usual character. A few fragments of black ware of elegant form, and the mouth and handle of a large and very fine vessel of coarse clay. Some foundations of buildings were encountered, based on a remarkably solid mass of concrete, in which courses of scored red tiles were bedded. A few fragments of the wall-decorations were also found, still bearing traces of the frescos which adorned them. Amongst the Roman Samian ware we noticed the following potters' marks: VIRONI OFF.—JYSTN—LVFI IIM—OFF ASSI—JVLIA. Some coins are said to have been turned up and disposed of by the workmen, but it is believed they are not irretrievably lost to the antiquary. The mediæval debris comprises several broken "grey beads" of common stoneware pottery, Dutch and English glazed tiles, and several tobacco-pipes of the peculiar small form singularly so common in excavations within and round London, which may be not inaptly termed the Sir Walter Raleigh type.

THE BRIGHTON WELL.—Mr. Maynard, the talented surveyor of these water-works at Brighton, informs us that the outlay of £22,000, stated in our last week's impression includes schools for the accommodation of three hundred children, with furniture, farm-buildings, enclosing and laying out twenty acres (£12,600), and purchase of land (£2,000). So that the actual cost of the well, with its steam-engines, pumps, and two Cornish boilers has been £6,700. The water has now risen to 893 feet, being 27 feet above the low-water mark of the sea, and is still coming higher.

THE PARADISE BIRDS.—The Paradise Birds, the expected arrival of which we announced in our last impression, arrived in safety at the Zoological Society's Gardens, Regent's-park, on the afternoon of Tuesday last. They are two young male birds, just coming into full plumage, and appear to be lively and in good health. The lateral tufts, which form such a conspicuous ornament in the adult male of this species (*Paradisæa papuana*), are just beginning to be developed. A large vacant room, formerly the upper portion of the old museum building, has been fitted up, with a cage 20 feet by 11 feet, for these birds, and will give them ample space to display their plumes in full beauty.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS.

Royal Society, March 27th. General Sabine, President, in the chair.—The paper read on this occasion was "Theoretical Considerations on the Conditions under which Drift Deposits containing the Remains of Extinct Mammalia and Flint Implements were accumulated, and on their Geological Time," by Jos. Prestwich, Esq. In the paper which the author read before the Society in 1859, it was demonstrated that the flint implements occurred in undisturbed gravels commingled with the remains of extinct mammalia; but the theoretical considerations of the subject were then omitted. The author now showed that in existing river-valleys, in parts of England and France, two lines or zones of gravels or drift deposits are met with; one at from fifty to two hundred feet above the present streams, and usually forming a terrace: the other ranging along the bottom of the valleys. The elevated terraces are portions of former valleys, wider and more shallow than the present ones, scooped out by other and different causes than mere ordinary river-action. They are above the reach of the highest floods, and no other mass of water than that flowing up an arm of the sea could fill them. The Seine, at its highest flood, has not exceeded twenty-nine feet, but it would require the present river to be of a hundred times that volume to fill the existing valley. That the terraces were originally connected is proved by the isolated patches of their gravels still lying at elevated spots between them. The author believed that the gravels were brought and distributed by ice and by the melting of the winter snows in spring pouring down great bodies of water, the gravels inclosing boulders of hard rock, brought often from long distances. He also attributed much importance to the action of ground-ice. He pointed out contortions in the drift-bed at St. Acheul, as formed by the pressure and squeezing force of massive ice. The characters of the gravels were then considered in reference to the climatal condition of the drift period, which the author argued were those of a more intense cold, by 20° or 25°, than the average of our present winters. The bearings of the geographical distribution of the animals of that period, and its comparison with those of existing forms of life, were also assumed to confirm this inference. The use assigned for some of the largest flint implements was that of making holes in the ice,—the men of the drift-age, like the North-American Indians and the Esquimaux, being no doubt often dependent upon winter supplies of fish. Since the formation of the high-level gravels, an elevation of the land has taken place, and the present valleys excavated, and the lower gravels deposited. The tendency of existing rivers was to cut deep gorges, and not valleys, with sloping sides, such as those containing the gravels. The large flint implements were nowhere so abundant in the valleys as in the terrace-gravels. Flint-flakes, on the contrary, were most common in the valley-gravels,—the climate of the valley-period being more lenient, there was a diminished need of great flint chisels for breaking the ice. These distributions, at two periods, of different forms of implements indicated a difference in the habits of the tribes by whom they were respectively used.

In the questions of time and succession the value of probabilities must be considered. The antiquity of the flints was carried back through three geological ages,—the loess, terrace-, and valley-gravels, all long periods except the loess, the duration of which was comparatively short. The sand-pipes in the valley of the Somme were first considered as a standard of time-measurement; and then the author commented upon the probable condition at those periods of the British Channel, the formation of which, while a late geological event, he was not prepared to admit to be one of the last. Even in the Pleistocene period the British Channel existed, although much narrower, and there was a line of cliffs running parallel with the present coasts. The sea being narrower, was frozen over every winter, permitting the passage of men and animals. Some of the great effects of such a cold period might already be conceived, although it might not be in our power as yet to define them accurately. In looking at a distant mountain-chain we could judge of its great magnitude without waiting for a trigonometrical survey to be assured of its exact dimensions. The author then suggested as a possible measure of time the perturbations in the increase of heat at various depths in the earth's crust, arising from disturbances originating with the glacial period; and he concluded by giving his impression that in the existence of this remarkable cold period preceding our own, we might possibly trace evidence of great and allwise design by the circumstance that, in this long glacial era, the earth's crust would tend to acquire an earlier adjustment in its equilibrium, and obtain a rigidity and stability which should make it more fitting for the habitation and pursuits of civilized man.

Royal Institution, March 28.—Admiral Fitzroy lectured "On the Meteorological Electric Telegraphy, under Trial at the Board of Trade." Having now had several years' experience in this department, he had consented to give some explanation of the system, for, as a fraction of public revenue was expended upon it, it was right some account of its operation should be given. The department was first organized by Mr. Cardwell in 1855. At the British Association meeting at Aberdeen, in 1859, the late lamented Prince Albert, then President, gave decided support to a proposal for meteorological telegraphy, and, in 1860, twenty home stations, besides six foreign ones, including Paris, for the collection and transmission of information, were established. By these means the officers of the department could form charts of the weather, and gather from them what was to be expected for some two or three days in advance, and thus to foretell storms. The first storm-warning was given in 1861, and these warnings have since been uninterruptedly continued. The services of the coast-guard had been added by the Admiralty, and now twenty reports of the weather, at various more or less distant places, are received every morning, and ten every evening. These weather notices are sent to six daily besides some weekly papers, to the Admiralty, Horse Guards, and Lloyd's. These "forecasts" add nothing to the expense of the system. The knowledge even that no bad weather was to be expected was by no means unimportant, and the value of the negative information might be even greater than that of the positive. The inferences drawn were not dependent on any individual, but on facts, and without those collections of facts which had been made at various observatories, and by the commanders of ships of all countries all over the world, it would not have been possible to utilize this science. The lecturer then explained the modern knowledge of storms, and the action and causes of cyclones. He also dwelt upon the great currents which pass from the poles to the equator, and *vice versa*, by irregularities in the motions of

which cyclones or storms were produced, and the effects of these he considered to be greatly increased by the shallowness of the earth's atmosphere. This had been generally regarded as from forty to fifty miles high. No clouds were ever seen above ten to fifteen miles, and the barometer in the highest balloon ascents of Rush and Welsh, about four miles, stood at eleven inches, which would give by arithmetical progression only no pressure at all in much less than ten miles. He thought the atmosphere did not extend many miles beyond the highest region of cloud, or fifteen to twenty miles. The self-registering barometers were then described, preference in meteorological observations being given to those which recorded by means of a spur marking upon a card moved by clock-work, over those registering by photography. The idea of weather-warnings had long been familiar both in America and Europe, and had been even proposed for the old semaphores; but the application of electricity to the subject was first practically taken up at the Aberdeen meeting of the British Association. Some of the practical effects of these warnings, otherwise unnoticed, was rendered evident by the reported depression of certain undertakings. The Plymouth Great Western Docks shareholders complained of a dulness in their business, from the absence of vessels in their graving docks for repairs of damages occasioned by storms. The great system of meteorological observations under the French astronomer Le Verrier was next spoken of, and our own peculiar facilities of information and independence of any foreign co-operation. We could communicate with Heligoland, Nairn, Valentia, Jersey, and various other places, with the advantage of their being nearly on the same level. The present system of signals was essentially one of warning; all that was meant by the notice was "Look out," and it was left then for local observations to influence the application of the warning. In foretelling changes of weather, what had chiefly to be regarded was, that currents moving in the direction of their length move also in the direction of their breadth, those reaching us drifting about five miles an hour constantly to the East, in addition to their other motions. When currents met and interfered with each other, there was sometimes much complication in their motions. Local changes extended to no great distances, and were not of importance in eliciting the general results; but important changes were, on the contrary, felt over great distances, and warnings could be given two or three days before bad weather would reach us, sometimes even as much as four days. The pocket aneroids of Messrs. Negretti & Zambra were praised by the lecturer as being so portable and accurate. The idea that cyclones gyrate across the ocean and re-traversed it back again was strongly opposed, and the lecturer concluded by pointing out the general courses of the storms which reached our island, and exhibiting the warning signals in use, which have already been described by us in this journal (vol. iii., 583, and p. 794).

Meteorological Society, March 19. N. Beardmore, Esq., C.E., President, in the chair.

The following members were elected:—G. B. Airy, Esq., M.A., Astronomer Royal; Sir C. T. Bright, Bart.; E. B. Bright, Esq., F.R.A.S.; A. Brewin, Esq.; J. G. Barclay, Esq., F.R.A.S.; R. Cull, Esq., Secretary to the Ethnological Society; L. Clarke, Esq.; E. Clark, Esq.; C. O. F. Cator, Esq., B.A.; R. C. Despard, Esq.; R. V. Dodwell, Esq.; R. B. Grantham, Esq., C.E.; F. Hopkins, Esq.; W. H. Harrison, Esq.; A. O. Hammond, Esq.; E. D. Johnson, Esq.; R. Inwards, Esq.; Captain W. D. Lowe; J. Lake, Esq., C.E.; Dr. Morris; J. Miller, Esq., M.R.C.S.L.; J. MacLean, Esq., C.E.; D. MacCullum, Esq.; Sir J. P. Orde, Bart.; W. H. Preece, Esq.; T. L. Plant, Esq.; Dr. Stewart; B. W. Smith, Esq.; J. Simms, Esq.; Rev. F. Silver; W. W. Saunders, Esq., F.R.S., Vice-president Linnean Society, Treasurer Royal Horticultural Society, Vice-president Entomological Society; Rev. R. Tyas; and W. O. Whitehouse, Esq.

1. "On the best Method of determining Average Values from individual Observations," by John Bloxam, Esq.

2. Mr. Bloxam also read a paper "On the Comparison of the Daily Readings of the Barometer at Greenwich and Newport."

3. "On the Gales of November, 1861," by Dr. Moffat. The remarks on these gales were from observations taken at fourteen stations in England and the Channel Islands, in each degree of latitude from 49° to 55°, and longitude between 1° E. and 30° W. Taking a general view, Dr. Moffat concluded that the vortex of the cyclone was in the German Ocean, off the coast of Scarborough,—an opinion in which he was borne out by the statements of masters of ships returning from the Baltic. His paper terminated with some remarks on the prevalence of diseases of the nervous and muscular systems in connection with such gales, and with hail and snow showers.

Ethnological Society, 1st April.—"On the Antiquity of Man from the Evidence of Language," by the President, J. Crawford, Esq. The period usually assigned for the first appearance of man only date from the time when he had attained the means of in some way recording his own career. Long ages must have elapsed before he could have attained this power. Language is not innate, but an acquirement of the human understanding. Infants are naturally without, and acquire it by instruction, learning as readily one language as another. The prodigious number of languages which exist shows also multitudinous sources of origin—a distinct and separate invention for every independent tongue. But such is the antiquity of language, that in no case could we trace when or by whom it was made. It must have existed long before the art of writing, which was of comparatively recent origin. The inflexions and prepositions of words, and the structural peculiarities of various of the principal languages, were then brought to bear on the subject. From the primitive articulations of savages to express their few requirements and wants, then, language had its rise. In the first attempts, names were given to familiar objects, forming nouns. Then adjectives expressing quality would follow; and afterwards, by degrees, the various other terms more and more abstract in their expressions. Thus, the long lapse of time is demanded for the elaboration of the rudest tongue—for none exists with a vocabulary of fewer than 10,000 words. These words, in order to constitute a coherent system, had often to undergo modifications of form; and some of them besides their literal meaning, had to receive metaphorical ones. What ages, then, must have elapsed between the first rude attempts to assign names to a few familiar objects, and the completeness language has arrived at, even among cannibals?

British Archaeological Association, March 26th. George Vere Irving, Esq., V.P., in the chair.—The exhibitions were—1. By Mr. George Maw, F.S.A., three articles found between fifty and sixty years since, in pulling down an old house in Norwich, namely, a letter dated February, 1615, by Martin Calthorp, communicating that "Colonel Cromwell was alive and well since the printed newes of his being slaine in a duell in Holland, which report was unfounded;" an iron spur, of the time of Charles I.; a toilet implement, of silver.—2. By Mr. C. Ainslie, a very delicate gold ring (only 7½ grs.); tradition assigns its possession to a Lady Errol.—3. By Mr. T. Ingall, a painting of the bust of the Saviour, in oil, on a thin plaque of alabaster, believed to be by a Spanish artist of the sixteenth century. Mr. Syer Cuming made some observations on paintings upon stone, and referred to various examples. Dr. Barlow enumerated several on

slate, a very remarkable example of which is a series of figures of the Apostles in the Church of St. Ursula, at Cologne.—4. By Mr. Hensman, an Angel of Henry VIII., weighing 3 dwts. 8 grs.—5. By Mr. Wakeman, an impression from a coin of Carausius, of a new type, in the Caerleon Museum. The obverse presents a profile to the right bearing a rayed crown and the legend IMP CARAVSIVS P F AVS VRICVS. The reverse, a standing figure of the Emperor, holding a spear and an orb. SÆCVLI FELICITAS.

Mr. Syer Cuming read a paper, "On Ancient Fibulae," to illustrate some fine specimens (exhibited) in the possession of Mr. W. H. Forman. Among them were examples of a Roman fibula, representing the Hippocampus, enamelled; a circular cloisonnée, enamelled; some of the champ-levé manufacture (bronze plated with silver), measuring five inches in length, although probably an inch had been broken off from the bottom; and others of Saxon age. Mr. Syer Cuming also read a paper "On Seals bearing a Date." Hitherto he had not met with any earlier than the fourteenth century, and only one of that era, the seal of Cottingham Priory, founded A.D. 1322, by Thomas Wade, lord of Liddell. Of the fifteenth century, the seal of the ancient borough of Shrewsbury was produced, bearing date 1425.

Mr. Paul Brisdien forwarded some memoranda relating to Thomas Burton, Bishop of Sodor and Man. This bishop is not named by Heylyn, nor by Sacheverin, in his "Survey." Thomas Burton was Abbot of Vale Royal, in Cheshire, made bishop in 1452, and stated to have died in possession in 1480. The Pope styles the see the Church of Sodor. The bracelet bearing his seal, lately exhibited before the society, makes it *Monensis*.

The Chairman laid upon the table Part II. of the *Collectanea Archaeologica*, which completes the first volume of this publication.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

LIST OF MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

ENTOMOLOGICAL—12, Bedford-row, at 8 P.M.

MEDICAL—32A, George-street, Hanover-square, at 8½ P.M. "On Syphilitic Metritis," By M. De Méric.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 2 P.M. General Monthly Meeting.

CHEMICAL—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

TUESDAY.

CIVIL ENGINEERS—25, Great George-street, Westminster, at 8 P.M. Discussion on Mr. Brunelles' and Captain Galton's Papers "On Railway Accidents."

MEDICAL AND CHIRURGICAL—53, Berners-street, Oxford-street, at 8½ P.M.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. "On the Physiology of the Sense," By Mr. J. Marshall.

SYRO-EGYPTIAN—22, Hart-street, Bloomsbury, at 7 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY—11, Hanover-square, at 9 P.M. "Remarks on a Specimen of *Alpi-saurus Ferox*," By Mr. Yate Johnson.

WEDNESDAY.

ROYAL LITERATURE—St. Martin's-place, at 8½ P.M.

SOCIETY OF ARTS—John-street, Adelphi, at 8 P.M. "On the Decoration of the International Exhibition Building," By J. Gregory Crace.

GRAPHIC—Flaxman Hall, University College, at 8 P.M.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION—32, Sackville-street, at 8½ P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

THURSDAY.

ROYAL—Burlington House, at 8½ P.M. The Bakerian Lecture "On the Total Solar Eclipse of July 18th, 1860, observed at Rivabellosa," By Warren De la Rue, Esq., F.R.S.

PHILOLOGICAL—Somerset House, at 8 P.M. "An Account of some Early English Poems," By F. J. Furnivall, Esq.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. "On Heat," By Professor Tyndall.

CHEMICAL—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. "On the Quantitative Method in Chemistry," By Dr. Debus.

FRIDAY.

ASTRONOMICAL—Somerset House, at 8 P.M.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 8 P.M. "On Mauve and Magenta, and the Colouring Matters derived from Coal," By Dr. Hoffmann.

SATURDAY.

ASIATIC—5, New Burlington-street, at 3 P.M.

BOTANIC—Inner Circle, Regent's Park, at 3½ P.M.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. "On Spectrum Analysis," By Professor H. E. Roscoe.

NOTICE TO SUBSCRIBERS.

The LONDON REVIEW is now Published on SATURDAY Morning, in time for the early trains, and not on Friday, as hitherto. Copies of the LONDON REVIEW may be obtained in the Country through any Bookseller or News-agent on the day of publication.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer having brought forward his Budget on Thursday evening, it would have been impossible to comment upon his financial statement if the day of publication had continued to be, as hitherto, on Friday. This circumstance, and the importance of giving the latest intelligence of the current week, have proved the necessity of postponing the publication of the LONDON REVIEW by one day. The first-fruits of this arrangement will be apparent by the first article in this week's number.

Advertisements are received up to TWELVE o'clock on FRIDAY.

THE LONDON REVIEW, AND WEEKLY JOURNAL OF POLITICS, LITERATURE, ART, AND SOCIETY.

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Musical and Scientific Intelligence, &c.

Applications for
the Theatre.

Also, of Mr. M.
Messrs. COCK & HU-
& WOOD, Regent-str-
Royal Italian Op-

THEATRE RO-
Enormous success
of Lord Dundreary. "Br-
Monday, Tuesday, Wedne-
AMERICAN COUSIN.
with THE WIFE'S PO-
Thursday, April 10th, in
and Westminster Rifles (f-
formed SHOCKING EV-
EIN; GRIMSHAW, BA-
FOUNDED ON FACTS.
performing before Easter
the Theatre will be closed

POLYTECHN-
EVENING, at 4
and on "THE ECLIP-
Grand Concert by
Families, the latter perfo-
Lectures on "The Late A-
and on "The New Terres-
mentary Astronomy, Wed-
nesday, Thursday, and Satur-
day, Thursday, and Satur-
day, Dissolving Views, illu-
England." Open 12 to 5 and

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.

SEASON 1862.

MR. GYE has the honour to announce to the Nobility, Gentry, Subscribers, and the Public, that the OPERA SEASON of 1862 will commence on

TUESDAY NEXT, APRIL 8TH,

On which occasion will be performed ROSSINI'S GRAND OPERA, "GUGLIELMO TELL."

ENGAGEMENTS.

Mademoiselle ADELINA PATTI,
Madame PENCO,
Madame DIDIÉE,
Madame RUDERSDORFF,
Mademoiselle ANESE,
Madame TAGLIAFICO,
Madame MIOLAN-CARVALHO,
Mademoiselle ROSA CSILLAG,
Mademoiselle GORDOSA,
Her First Appearance in England.
AND
Mademoiselle MARIE BATTU,
Her First Appearance in England.

Signor TAMBERLIK,
Signor NERI-BARALDI,
Signor LUCCHESI,
Signor ROSSI,
Signor GARDONI,
His First Appearance these Two Years,
AND
Signor MARIO.

Signor RONCONI,
Signor GRAZIANI,
Monsieur FAURE,
AND
Signor DELLE SEDIE,
His First Appearance at the Royal Italian Opera.

Herr FORMES,
Signor TAGLIAFICO,
Signor FELLAR,
Signor PATRIOSI,
Monsieur ZELGER,
Signor CIAMPI,
Signor NANNI,
His First Appearance in England.
AND
Signor CAPPONI,
His First Appearance in England.

Director of the Music, Composer, and Conductor,
Mr. COSTA.

Principal Danseuses.

Mademoiselle SALVIONI,
AND
Mademoiselle BATTALINI.

Maestro al Piano, Signor LICALSI.
Leader of the Military Band, Mr. GODFREY.
Chorus Master, Mr. SMYTHSON.
Poet, Signor MAGGIONI.
Prompter, Signor MONTERASI.
Leader of the Ballet, Mons. NADAUD.
Maitre de Ballet, Mons. DESPLACES.

THE UNRIVALLED ORCHESTRA AND CHORUS OF THE ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA.

Stage Manager, Mr. A. HARRIS.

The Scenery by Mr. WILLIAM BEVERLEY,
Mr. GRIEVE, and Mr. TELBIN.

Artistes Costumiers.

Madame MARZIO, Mons. HENNIER, and Mons. GUSTAVE MORIN (from Paris),
Mrs. JAMES and Mr. COOMBS.

The Machinery by Mr. SLOMAN.
The Appointments by Mr. PRESCOTT.

Applications for Boxes and Stalls to be made to Mr. PARSONS, at the Box Office, under the Portico of the Theatre.

Also, of Mr. MITCHELL, Messrs. EBERS, Mr. HOOKHAM, Messrs. CHAPPELL, Mr. BUBB, Messrs. COCK & HUTCHINGS, Bond-street; Mr. SAMS, St. James's-street; Messrs. CRAMER, BEALE, & WOOD, Regent-street; and of Messrs. KEITH, PROWSE, & CO., Cheapside.

Royal Italian Opera, Covent Garden, April, 1862.

THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.—Enormous success of Mr. SOTHERN, in the character of Lord Dundreary. "Brother Sam's" Letter nightly encored. Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday, OUR AMERICAN COUSIN. Mr. Buckstone, Mr. Sothern, &c., with THE WIFE'S PORTRAIT and FAMILY JARS. On Thursday, April 10th, in aid of the Band Fund of the London and Westminster Rifles (46th Middlesex), when will be performed SHOCKING EVENTS; OUR AMERICAN COUSIN; GRIMSHAW, BAGSHAW, AND BRADSHAW; and FOUNDED ON FACTS. Saturday, April 12th, last night of performing before Easter Monday, as during Passion week the Theatre will be closed for cleansing and decorating.

POLYTECHNIC.—NEXT MONDAY EVENING, at 7 past 7, Lecture by Professor J. H. Poyser, on "THE ECLIPSES OF THE SUN AND MOON," and Grand Concert by the BROUSIL and SHAPCOTT Families, the latter performing on their Silver Neo Horns. Lectures on "The Late Appalling Accidents in Coal Mines," and on "The New Terrestrial and Stellar Chemistry." Elementary Astronomy, Wednesday at 2. Concert by the celebrated Brousil Family every evening at 7 past 8, and on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday mornings at 3. Beautiful Series of Dissolving Views, illustrating the "Iron Walls of Old England." Open 12 to 5 and 7 to 10.

ROYAL ALHAMBRA PALACE.—The wondrous Leotard every evening during the week (the 279th representation).—Miss Rebecca Isaacs, Miss F. Thirlwall, and Madame Dotti; and Messrs. Vernon Rigby, Parkinson, Bartleman, &c.; the Mexican Wonders; Steve Ethair; the Gorilla; the Infant Koenig; Mrs. Brian, and Messrs. Wieland, Critchfield, and Templeton. A Grand Morning Performance, as above, on Saturday next. Commence at 2; carriages at 4. Box-office open from 11 to 4. Musical Director, Mr. Thos. Bartleman.

ROYAL BOTANIC SOCIETY, REGENT'S PARK.
GENERAL EXHIBITIONS OF PLANTS, FLOWERS, AND FRUIT,
Wednesdays, May 29th, June 18th, and July 9th.
AMERICAN PLANTS, Monday, June 9th.
Tickets to be obtained at the Gardens only, by Vouchers from Fellows or Members of the Society, price, on or before Saturday, May 17th, 4s.; after that day, 5s.; or on the days of exhibition, 7s. 6d. each.
SPRING EXHIBITIONS every Wednesday to May 7th, at Two o'clock.

LECTURES ON MAN IN BRIGHTON.
Messrs. FOWLER and WELLS,
From America, now LECTURING on PHRENOLOGY and PHYSIOLOGY in the ROYAL PAVILION, BRIGHTON,
Will OPEN in LONDON about the 15th of APRIL.
Address, 337, Strand.

ROYAL FREE HOSPITAL, Gray's-inn-road.
The numerous and urgent appeals which are made for admission by the homeless and destitute sick render it imperative on the Committee to entreat the continued bounty of the affluent and humane to enable them to persevere in the extensive system of relief afforded by this Hospital.
During the past year, in addition to 1,190 in-patients, no less than 50,406 out-patients received the benefit of this Charity. Since Christmas two additional wards have been opened for the reception of in-door patients.
Contributions are received by the Treasurer, EDWARD MASTERMAN, Esq., Nicholas-lane; and at the Hospital.
STANFORD S. SMITH, Sec.

HOSPITAL FOR CONSUMPTION AND DISEASES OF THE CHEST, BROMPTON, S.W.
One eighth of the entire mortality of the country results from diseases of the chest. This fact accounts for the vast number of sick persons seeking the benefits of this special Charity, particularly in the winter months, when cold, want, and miserable homes aggravate their sufferings. To turn them away would be cruel; to keep all the wards open money is required, and is earnestly solicited.
PHILIP ROSE, Hon. Sec.
HENRY DOBBIN, Sec.

INDIA OFFICE, 20th March, 1862.
THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR INDIA
in Council hereby GIVES NOTICE,
That the present RATE OF INTEREST (£4. 10s.) Four Pounds Ten Shillings per cent. per annum, on East-India Bonds, will CEASE and determine on the 31st day of MARCH, 1863.
That from and after the 31st day of MARCH, 1863, such Bonds will carry Interest at the rate of (£4) Four Pounds per cent. per annum.
That Holders of Bonds will be allowed to bring them in to be marked for continuation at the said Interest of (£4) Four Pounds per cent. per annum until the 30th day of SEPTEMBER, 1862, and that such Bonds as shall not be marked for continuation as aforesaid on or before the 30th day of SEPTEMBER, 1862, shall be liable to be paid off on the said 31st day of MARCH, 1863, on which day all Interest will cease.
THOMAS GEORGE BARING.

DEMERRARA RAILWAY COMPANY.
Issue of £115,000 Perpetual Preference Stock, in conformity with the Colonial Ordinances of November, 1859, and August, 1861.
PROVISIONAL COMMITTEE IN LONDON.
James Brand, Esq. Jonathan Hopkinson, Esq.
Henry Bruce, Esq. M. H. Kemshead, Esq.,
Sir J. R. Carmichael, Bart. Capt. Mangles, R.N.
G. H. Chambers, Esq. John Torrance, Esq.
Henry Davidson, Esq.

The Demerara Railway was projected in 1845, with a proposed capital of £250,000, and the line was to extend from Georgetown to Mahaica, a distance of about 20½ miles.
In consequence of the monetary difficulties of 1847, and of the peculiar depreciation of West India property, this amount of capital could not be obtained from the original shareholders; but, by the issue of Preference Stock and of Debentures, and by Loans from the Colony, the railway has been carried to within five miles of its intended terminus at Mahaica.
In November, 1859, an ordinance was passed by the Colonial Legislature, and received the sanction of the Home Government, surrendering to the Company the debt due to the colony, on condition that the railway should be completed to Mahaica at the estimated cost of £30,000, five years being allowed for such completion.
It was found that through this liberal concession on the part of the colony, the railway might be completed at the cost to the shareholders originally contemplated, a result almost, if not altogether unprecedented in railway construction. The present amount of original stock is £135,100, and the issue of £115,000 will suffice to finish the line, to clear off the debenture debt, and all other claims against the Company.
A Colonial ordinance, authorizing the issue of this £115,000 as a 7 per cent. preference stock, was passed in August, 1861, and, with the concurrence of the Directors at Liverpool, this stock is now offered to the public by the above-named provisional committee. The existing ordinances require that the management of the Company should be carried on at Liverpool, but an application has gone forward to authorize its transfer to London.

In consequence of the immigration now taking place, the exports from the Colony are steadily increasing: the returns for 1861, just received, show that—
Of sugar 64,821 hhds.
Of rum 30,378 smaller packages.
Of molasses 27,099 puns.
Of greenheart and other hard-wood 5,977 hhds. and bris.
Of molasses 3,477 puns.
Of greenheart and other hard-wood 825,083 feet.

were shipped in that year, being largely in excess of any former export; to the excess of sugar and rum, the estates upon the railway have mainly contributed. The line also leads to that part of the Colony, and to the adjoining Province of Berbice, which was the great seat, in former years, of the cotton cultivation now sought to be re-established. Notwithstanding the imperfect site of the railway, the traffic has steadily increased; the returns last year on 15 miles amounted to £22,294. It is believed that the completion of the line will greatly increase the proportionate returns, but assuming the remaining five miles to yield only one-third more, viz. 7,431

There will be an annual income of 29,725
The dividend at seven per cent. on £115,000 Preference Stock will be 8,050

Leaving £21,675
or about 73 per cent. to pay working expenses and dividends to the original shareholders.
The plan proposed is to issue the new stock in certificates of £20 each, with £5 paid thereon; £2 to be paid on application for such certificate, and £3 on allotment; the further calls not to exceed £5 each, at intervals of not less than three months. The deposits will be returned without deduction should no allotment be made.
Forms of application may be had of V. Perronet Seils, Esq., Secretary of the Provisional Committee, at the office of Messrs. Thos. Daniel & Co., 4, Mincing-lane; of John H. Golding, Esq., 3, Warrford-court, Throgmorton-street; and of P. F. Garnett, Esq., Secretary of the Company, Liverpool.
Applications for certificates, accompanied by the deposit of £2 for each certificate, are to be sent to Charles Cave, Esq., Colonial Commissioner, at the banking-house of Messrs. Prescott, Grove, Cave, & Cave, 62, Threadneedle-street, London.
London, March, 1862.

SINGAPORE GAS COMPANY (Limited).
Capital £100,000, in 20,000 shares of £5 each, with power to increase. 10s. to be paid on application, and 10s. on allotment. No future call to exceed £1 per share, and the intervals between each call not to be less than three months, as provided by the articles of Association of the Company.

DIRECTORS.
Stephenson Clarke, Esq., Surrey Consumers' Gas Company.
Benjamin Cooke, Esq., Bahia Gas Company.
George Garraway, Esq., Brighton and Hove Gas Company.
Robert Laing, Esq., Independent, and Malta and Mediterranean Gas Companies.
Warne B. M. Lysley, Esq., County and General Gas Company.
John Nicol, Esq., Tottenham and Edmonton Gas Company.
Dr. Normandy, Analytical Chemist.
Henry Palfrey Stephenson, Esq., Crystal Palace District Gas Company.

COMMITTEE OF MANAGEMENT AT SINGAPORE.

WILLIAM HENRY READ, Esq., Chairman.
Jose D'Almeida, Esq. | William Paterson, Esq.
John James Greenhields, Esq. | Tan Kim Seng, Esq.
Charles Hercules Harrison, Esq. | Whampoa, Esq.
Reginald Paddy, Esq.

Law Agent at Singapore—Alexander Muirhead Aitken, Esq.
Hon. Sec. (pro. tem.) at Singapore—Christopher R. Rigg, Esq.
Auditors—Wm. T. Morrison, Esq., 23, Fenchurch-street;
Alfred Williams, Esq., 64, Bankside, Southwark.
Solicitor—Thomas H. Scarborough, Esq., 5, Bloomsbury-square.

Consulting Engineer.
R. M. Christie, Esq., 76, King William-street, City.
Engineer and Secretary—Robert King, Esq., 68, Pall-mall.
Broker—Francis Burnand, County-chambers, 14, Cornhill.
Bankers in London.
London and County Bank, 21, Lombard-street.
Bankers in Singapore.
Oriental Bank Corporation, Threadneedle-street.
Temporary Offices in London—76, King William-street, E.C.

ABRIDGED PROSPECTUS.

The Singapore Gas Company (Limited) has been formed for supplying gas to the British settlement of Singapore, containing a population of upwards of 80,000, with about 5,500 houses, exclusive of churches, chapels, barracks, prisons, and Government offices.

The extensive trade of Singapore calls for a very considerable supply of gas; the town has hitherto been lighted with oil, which is costly and troublesome, and there is a very strongly expressed desire on the part of the inhabitants for the establishment of gasworks.

His Honour the Governor has conditionally sanctioned the grant to the Company of sufficient land for the construction of the works, and has expressed his willingness to take into his favourable consideration any proposal which the Company may make as to lighting up the Government buildings.

The Municipal Commissioners have consented to allow the Company to construct the works and lay down mains, and have expressed their intention to contract for lighting the town with gas for a term of years.

No payment will be required for the advantages conceded to the Company.

An influential local Committee has been formed in Singapore to act in co-operation with the London Directors.

Estimates for the construction of the works and the workings of the Company have been prepared by the Company's engineers, and carefully tested by the Directors, who are all practically experienced in gas business. These estimates show that gas of an illuminating power, equal to 18 candles, can be supplied at 13s. 6d. per 1,000 cubic feet, which is not more than five-eighths of the present cost of cocoa-nut oil, yielding an equal light, or one-seventh the cost of wax candles.

The calculations on the workings of the Company show a profit of upwards of 12 per cent. on the capital laid out, and are based on the assumption that it will be necessary to have coal from England. It is hoped, however, that the Australian, Labuan, and Indian Coal Fields, or other sources, will provide a cheaper coal suitable for the manufacture of gas, which would further increase the profits.

The value of gas property as an investment in England and on the Continent is fully recognized. All the London gas companies are paying large dividends, while the profits derived from provincial and foreign companies are most satisfactory. In 1858 the Australian Gas Company divided 10 per cent. per annum and a bonus of 5 per cent. per annum; the shares upon which £6 has been paid in December last at £9 per share; the shares of the Oriental Gas Company for lighting Calcutta are now quoted in the London market at from 25 to 50 per cent. premium.

The Articles of Association are prepared, and may be seen at the Company's Offices, and shares must be taken subject to such Articles, in which it is provided that, in case a sufficient amount of capital shall not be subscribed to justify the Directors in proceeding with the works, the whole of the deposits will be repaid without any deduction.

Applications for shares must be accompanied with a deposit of 10s. per share, paid to the London and County Bank, or through any of its branches.

Interest at 5 per cent. per annum will be paid on the called up capital of the Company until six months after the opening of the works.

Detailed prospectuses and forms of application for shares may be had at the Company's Offices, 76, King William-street; or of the broker of the Company, Mr. FRANCIS BURNAND, County-chambers, 14, Cornhill.

UNITY GENERAL LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION.

Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.
Income from life premiums in 1860..... £24,300 8 9
Loans granted. Good bonuses. Moderate premiums.
CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

UNITY FIRE INSURANCE ASSOCIATION

Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.
Income from fire premiums in 1860..... £70,658 16 0
Every description of risks insured at tariff rates.
CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

ACCIDENTS ARE UNAVOIDABLE!!

Every one should therefore Provide against them. The RAILWAY PASSENGERS ASSURANCE COMPANY grant Policies for sums from £100 to £1,000, Assuring against Accidents of all kinds. An Annual payment of £3, secures £1,000 in case of Death by Accident, or a Weekly Allowance of £6 to the Assured while laid up by Injury.

Apply for Forms of Proposal, or any information, to the Provincial Agents, the Booking Clerks at the Railway Stations, or to the Head Office, 64, Cornhill, London, E.C. £102,817 have been paid by this Company as compensation for Fifty-six fatal cases, and 5,041 cases of personal injury.

The Sole Company privileged to issue Railway Journey Insurance Tickets, costing 1d., 2d., or 3d., at all the principal Stations.

EMPOWERED BY SPECIAL ACT OF PARLIAMENT, 1840.
WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.
64, Cornhill, E.C.

WATERLOO LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.
THIS COMPANY OFFERS THE SECURITY
of a Capital of £400,000. The last Bonus was in 1859, the next valuation will be in 1864.

Claims within the days of Grace paid by this Company.
IMMEDIATE AND DEFERRED ANNUITIES AND ENDOWMENTS.
New Premium Income for the year 1861, £9,173. 12s.
Policies granted against ACCIDENTS or DISEASE totally disabling the Assured, for a small extra premium.
Paid-up Policies granted after five Annual Payments.
Half Credit Premium system for five years.
Forms on application to the Office, 355, Strand, London.

STAR LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY
Established 1843.
HEAD OFFICE, 48, MOORGATE-STREET, LONDON.

Extracts from the Report for the year ending Dec. 31, 1861, and presented at the Annual Meeting, held March 3, 1862:—
During the year 1861, 1,532 Proposals were submitted to the Directors for the Assurance of £513,040; of this number, 1,115 were completed, and Policies issued for the sum of £361,960; yielding in Annual Premiums £12,868. 3s. 11d., and 201 stood over for completion at the end of the year; the remainder were either declined or withdrawn.

It will be seen that the new income is larger than in any previous year of the Society's existence.
The Statement of Accounts was read, which indicated the following gratifying results:—
The Society's Income is now £100,990. 8s. 2d.
The Accumulated Fund is £414,231. 5s. 9d.
Being increased during the year by the addition of £53,701. 2s. 9d.

The following Table, in continuation of that presented in the last Annual Report, will best illustrate the progress of the Society during the last six years:—

Year.	No. of New Policies Issued.	Sums Assured thereby.	Annual Premiums therefrom.	Total Accumulations from all sources.
1856	603	234,451	6,597 18 3	202,110 7 2
1857	572	221,122	7,735 9 5	238,055 1 7
1858	658	235,350	8,582 0 9	274,797 15 4
1859	812	294,495	10,172 19 6	309,444 5 2
1860	902	336,290	11,312 15 9	360,530 3 0
1861	1,115	361,960	12,868 3 11	414,231 5 9

Applications for assurance may be addressed to any of the Agents of the Society, or to
JESSE HOBSON, Secretary.

LAW LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY,
FLEET STREET, LONDON.
ESTABLISHED 1823.

The invested Assets of this Society exceed FIVE MILLIONS STERLING; its Annual Income is FOUR HUNDRED AND NINETY-FIVE THOUSAND POUNDS.

Up to 31st December, 1861, the Society had paid in Claims upon death:—

Sums Assured	£4,329,378
Bonus thereon	1,115,298
Together	£5,444,676

The Profits are divided every fifth year. All participating Policies effected during the present year will, if in force beyond 31st December, 1864, share in the Profits to be divided up to that date.

At the Divisions of Profits hitherto made, Reversionary Bonuses exceeding THREE AND A HALF MILLIONS have been added to the several Policies.

Prospectuses, Forms of Proposal, and Statements of Accounts, may be had on application to the Actuary, at the Office, Fleet-street, London.

WILLIAM SAMUEL DOWNES,
February, 1862. Actuary.

CLERICAL, MEDICAL, AND GENERAL LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY,
13, ST. JAMES'S SQUARE, LONDON, S.W.

ESTABLISHED 1824.—Empowered by Special Act of Parliament.

BONUS MEETING, 1862.

The Report presented at a Meeting held on the 2nd January last, for the declaration of the SEVENTH BONUS, showed,

In Evidence of the Progress of the Society, that during the quinquennial period which terminated on the 30th June, 1861,

NEW ASSURANCES for a total sum of £1,486,370 had been effected, being an increase of £62,215 on those of the previous five years; that

THE INCOME had increased from £166,800 to £195,400 per annum; that

THE ASSURANCE FUND had risen from £1,154,276 to £1,422,191; and that a

REVERSIONARY ADDITION to the Policies of £275,077 was then made, as against £232,479 at the prior division.

In Illustration of the Results of the Division, that the Reversionary Addition above named averaged 48 per cent., or varied with the different ages from 33 to 89 per cent. on the Premiums paid in the five years; and that the

CASH BONUS averaged 28 per cent. on the like Premiums, being amongst the largest ever declared by any office.

The Report explained at length the nature of the investments, and the bases of the calculations, the results of which, as above shown, are eminently favourable.

THE FOLLOWING ARE AMONG THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE SOCIETY:—

CREDIT SYSTEM.—On Policies for the whole of life, one-half of the Annual Premiums during the first five years may remain on credit, and may either continue as a debt on the Policy, or be paid off at any time.

POLICIES FOR TERMS OF YEARS may be effected at rates peculiarly favourable to Assurers.

INVALID LIVES may be assured at Premiums proportioned to the increased risk.

PROMPT SETTLEMENT OF CLAIMS.—Claims paid thirty days after proof of death.

THE ACCOUNTS AND BALANCE SHEETS are at all times open to the inspection of the Assured, or of persons proposing to assure.

Tables of Rates, Forms of Proposal, the Report above-mentioned, and a detailed account of the Proceedings of the Bonus Meeting, can be obtained from any of the Society's Agents, or of
GEORGE CUTCLIFFE, Actuary and Secretary,
13, St. James's-square, London, S.W.

THE NEXT DIVISION OF PROFITS will take place in January, 1867, and persons who effect New Policies before the end of June next, will be entitled, at that division, to one year's additional share of profits over later Assurers.

THE EUROPEAN ASSURANCE SOCIETY
issue GUARANTEE POLICIES or BONDS, at reduced Rates of premium, on behalf of Officials in or under the Treasury, Customs, Inland Revenue, General Post Office, Board of Trade, War Office, Admiralty, the Home, Colonial, and India Offices, Poor Law Board, Office of Her Majesty's Works, &c., and other Public Departments.
Every facility given to substitute the Bonds of this Society in lieu of existing Securities.
Life Assurance in all its branches at moderate rates, with or without participation in profits.
Life Assurance combined with Guarantee on terms most advantageous to the Assured.

Immediate Annuities granted at the undermentioned Rates for every £100 of purchase money:—
Age 50 years. Age 60 years. Age 70 years.
Annuity ... £7. 17s. 6d. ... £10. 3s. 4d. ... £14. 16s. 3d.
Forms of Proposal, Prospectuses, and Agency Applications may be obtained from the Head Office, 2, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall, London.

STANDARD LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

Was Established in 1825, and during the last fifteen years the annual average value of New Assurances has exceeded Half a Million sterling, being the largest business transacted in that period by any Life Assurance Office.

From 1846 to 1851 the amount of Assurances effected was	£2,245,461 13 0
From 1851 to 1856 the amount of Assurances effected was	2,541,540 5 1
From 1856 to 1861 the amount of Assurances effected was	2,802,958 14 6
Total in fifteen years	£7,590,200 12 0

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